

III. THE MIDDLE AGES

A. THE EARLY MIDDLE AGES

1. WESTERN EUROPE

a. THE EARLY PAPACY

The Church before the emergence of the Bishops of Rome. The center of gravity was in the east. Possession of the Holy Places and the presence of the emperor gave the east political and ecclesiastical supremacy.

Rise of the *episcopate*. The bishops originally overseers (*episcopus*), thanks to their consecration, the tradition of apostolic succession, and their control of the sacraments, were distinguished among the clergy. Each church was originally independent, but the evolution of an ecclesiastical counterpart to the centralized civil state gave the bishop a clearly monarchical quality in the 3d century. The lay and ecclesiastical states met in the person of the emperor, and the original loose autonomy of the independent churches began to be lost in a centralized system. The precedence of metropolitans (i.e. the bishops of the great sees) was recognized (341), without reducing the accepted superiority of the patriarchs. The five patriarchates (ecclesiastical equivalents of exarchates) were (save for Rome) in the east — Jerusalem, Antioch, Alexandria, Constantinople. The west (including Rome) was either poorly represented or not represented at all at the oecumenical councils in the east. Vague precedence in honor was conceded to Rome, but no more.

Oecumenical councils settled general problems of dogma and discipline. These councils were called by the emperor and presided over by him in person or by legate. Local problems were dealt with in synods.

EMERGENCE OF THE BISHOPS OF ROME¹ *Papa* was a title applied to all bishops until c. 425, and did not take on its present meaning until the 7th century. Bishop Victor of Rome (c. 190) exercised a kind of spiritual sovereignty which was continued in the 3d century. Gradually the recession of the Church of the east, the loss of Africa, and the rise of powerful churches in the east, left Rome isolated in the west. As the sole western apostolic see, the scene of the martyrdom of Peter, and

guardian of the tombs of Peter and Paul, Rome enjoyed a unique spiritual prestige, and until the reign of Diocletian (284-305) it was the administrative center of the empire. After that the capital was at Milan, and this see at times was almost equal to Rome in influence. With the removal of the imperial capital to Constantinople (330), Rome lost prestige, especially in the east. On the other hand, between 330 and 395, since there was no emperor permanently resident in the west, the Bishop of Rome had no political rival.

(1) The emperors supported the Roman campaign against paganism and against heresy (e.g. Arians and Donatists) with civil penalties, and confirmed and deprived bishops.

(2) The Roman See as early as the days of Diocletian was rich, and was further enriched by the emperors until it was the wealthiest in the Church; the Bishop of Rome enjoyed the "presidency in charity" throughout Christendom.

(3) Sporadic intervention (usually on appeal) was made outside his direct jurisdiction by the Bishop of Rome, but until after 1000 the Bishop of Rome "never once on his own special authority pronounced upon any doctrinal point addressed to the Catholic world." Nor did he interfere between a bishop and his flock in ordinary diocesan affairs or collect money except within his own immediate episcopal jurisdiction.

(4) The *Petrine theory*, on the basis of Matthew 16: 18, 19, asserts that Peter was designated by Christ as the founder of the Church, and that Christ conferred the "power of the keys," i.e. "the power to bind and loose," upon Peter, who transmitted it to his successor the Bishop of Rome, through whom it passed to all bishops. This theory was given currency by Pope Celestine I (422-432). In effect this abandoned the original concept of the Bishop of Rome as *episcopus inter episcopos* for the more radical monarchical concept of the Roman bishop as *episcopus episcoporum*. Early writers give no indication of such interpretations, and Cyprian (d. 258) in a famous passage avers that the Bishop of

¹ A complete list of the popes will be found in appendix IV.

Rome is no more than a bishop among other bishops

340. The introduction of eremitical monasticism into the west by Athanasius marked the beginning of a strong ascetic reaction against the corruption of western life. Supported by Jerome, Ambrose, and Augustine, this development led to a great growth of monasticism. Bishop Eusebius of Vercelli (d. 371), by insisting that his clergy lead a monastic life, began a practice which led to the general ordination of monks. Martin of Tours founded (c. 362) a cenobitic community of monks near Poitiers.

343 The Council of Sardika apparently recognized the right of appeal from a provincial synod to the Bishop of Rome. The oldest extant decretal dates from the episcopacy of Siricius (c. 384-398).

THE LATIN FATHERS OF THE CHURCH. Jerome (c. 340-420), a Dalmatian, devoted to pagan learning despite his keen ascetic convictions. The first great western exponent of monasticism. One of the greatest scholars of the Latin Church, his translation of the Bible into Latin (the *Vulgate*) is still authoritative in the Roman Church today. This excellent version exerted stylistic and theological influence throughout the Middle Ages. Ambrose (c. 340-397) of Trier, a Roman provincial governor, elected (374) Archbishop of Milan before he was baptized. His *Duties of the Clergy* (based largely on Cicero, *de Officiis*) was for centuries the standard work on ethics, and is probably the chief single source of the Stoic tradition in early western thought. He made Milan almost the equal of Rome in prestige, and forced the Emperor Theodosius to do penance, maintaining that in ecclesiastical matters a bishop was superior to an emperor. Augustine (354-430) of Hippo, greatest of the western fathers. Converted to Christianity after ventures in Neo-Platonism and Manichaeism, he was the founder of western theology, the link between the classical tradition and the mediaeval schoolmen. Through him a great stream of Platonic and Neo-Platonic thought came into the Church. For a thousand years all thought was influenced by Augustine, and theology betrays his influence to this day. He gave wide currency to the doctrines of original sin, predestination, salvation through divine grace, and his influence was felt by Calvin and Luther. His *City of God* presents a dualism of the heavenly city (identified with the Christian Church) and the earthly city (Rome), and is written to prove that the misfortunes of Rome (e.g. the sack of 410) were not due

to Christianity. The *Confessions* set the fashion in spiritual autobiography.

402-417 **INNOCENT I** asserted that the pope was custodian of apostolic tradition and claimed universal jurisdiction for the Roman Church.

440-461 **LEO THE GREAT**, the first great pope, a highly cultivated Roman, vigorous foe of the Manichaean heresy. He procured an edict from Emperor Valentinian III (445) declaring that papal decisions have the force of law. Leo was probably the first pope to enunciate the theory of the mystical unity of Peter and his successors, and to attribute all their doings and sayings to Peter. Leo, repudiating the decrees of the Robber Council of Ephesus (449) at the Council of Chalcedon (451), dictated without discussion, and with imperial support, his solution of the greatest doctrinal controversy since 325. His *Tome* promulgated the doctrine of the union of the two natures. He refused to accept the decree of the council that the Patriarch of Constantinople was supreme in the Church. The tradition of his miraculous arrest of Attila's advance and his efforts to stop Gaiseric's attack (455) won the papacy tremendous prestige in later days. (*Cont. pp. 150, 215*)

b. INVADERS OF THE WEST

ORIGINS OF THE INVADERS. The Germanic race was established in Scandinavia (Denmark) and between the Elbe and Oder as early as the 2d millennium B.C. Eastward lay the Balts (Letts) and to the west of the Elbe were the Celts.

EXPANSION. (1) The West Germans (Teutons) displaced (c. 1000 B.C.) the Celts, moving up the Elbe and Rhine (the Main reached c. 200 B.C.). South Germany was occupied (c. 100 B.C.), Gaul threatened (cf. Caesar's *Commentaries*). These invaders were a pastoral, agricultural folk, tending to settle down. By the time of Tacitus' (c. 55-c. 117 A.D.) *Germania* they were wholly agricultural. Later new tribal names and a new kind of federated organization appeared. (2) The East Germans (Scandinavians) crossed the Baltic (c. 600-300 B.C.) and pushed up the Vistula to the Carpathians. (3) The North Germans remained in Scandinavia.

NEW GROUPINGS AMONG THE WEST GERMANS. Alamanni (of Suebian stock) on the upper Rhine, Franks (i.e. "free" of the Romans) and Saxons between the Weser and the Elbe, inland to the Harz Th. south of the

GOVERNMENT. All were tribal democracies, some under kings, others under *grafs*. In each case the head of the state was elected by the assembly of free men, the kings chosen from a royal house e.g. Amals (Ostrogoths), Balthas (Visigoths). Mervings (Franks), the *grafs* without such restriction.

PROGRESS OF MIGRATIONS. The East Germans (Bastarnae, Burgundians, Gepids, Goths, Heruls, Rugians, Sciri) moved toward the Black Sea where they had arrived by 214 A.D. The division of Visigoth (West Goth) and Ostrogoth (East Goth) probably arose after their arrival at the Black Sea.

(1) The Huns

The Huns, nomadic Mongols of the Ural-Altai race group, probably under pressure from the Zhu-Zhu Empire in Asia, swept into Europe in the 4th century and halted for some 50 years in the valley of the Danube and Theiss.

372 They defeated the Alans and Heruls, destroyed the Ostrogothic empire or *Hermanric*, absorbed the Ostrogoths for a time in their own empire, routed the Visigoths under *Athanaric* on the Dniester River, and then began a new thrust to the west.

445-453. Height of the Hun power under *Attila*. *Honorius*, sister of *Valentinian III*, to escape an unwelcome marriage, sent her ring to *Attila* and asked for aid. *Attila* claimed this to be an offer of marriage. About the same time *Gaiseric* the Vandal was intriguing to induce *Attila* to attack the Visigoths. By a clever pretense of friendliness to both sides, *Attila* kept the Romans and Goths apart, and set out westward with a great force (451) which included Gepids, Ostrogoths, Rugians, Scirians, Heruls, Thuringians, Alans, Burgundians, and Riparian Franks. Metz was taken and the Belgic provinces ravaged. To meet *Attila* the Roman *Aetius* mustered a force of Salian Franks, Riparianians, Burgundians, Celts, and Visigoths under *Theodoric I*, as well as his own Gallo-Romans. *Attila* apparently declined battle near Orleans and turned back.

451. *Aetius* overtook him at an unknown spot near Troyes, the so-called *Lacus Murracius* (Châlons), and a drawn battle was fought. *Attila* continued his withdrawal. Still claiming *Honorius*, *Attila* turned into Italy, razed Aquileia, ravaged the countryside (foundation of Venice) and opened the road to Rome. Pope Leo, one of a company of three sent by the em-

peror, appeared before *Attila*. *Attila* retreated after plague had broken out in his force, food supply had run low, and reinforcements arrived from the east for the Roman army. *Attila's* death (453) was followed by a revolt of his German vassals led by the Gepids and (454) the defeat of the Huns on the Nedao (in Pannonia). The remnant of the Huns settled on the lower Danube, the Gepids set up a kingdom in Dacia, the Ostrogoths settled in Pannonia.

(2) The Visigoths

After their defeat by the Huns, the Visigoths (perhaps 80,000 in number) sought refuge in the Roman Empire.

376. The Emperor *Valens* ordered them disarmed and allowed to cross the Danube in order to settle in Lower Moesia. Faced with the unprecedented problem of these refugees, the Roman government bungled the administration, failed really to disarm the Goths and ultimately had to fight a two-year war with them.

378. The Visigoths, under *Fritigern*, defeated and killed *Valens* near Adrianople, thereby making the first decisive break in the Rhine-Danube frontier. This defeat of the Roman infantry by mounted warriors forecast the revolution in the art of war which determined the military, social, and political development of Europe throughout the Middle Ages.

Fritigern, hoping to carve a Visigothic empire out of the Roman provinces, ravaged Thrace for two years, but could not take Adrianople. After his death (379), the Emperor *Theodosius* arranged a pacification of the Visigoths as part of a general policy of assimilation. He won over some of the chieftains, including *Alaric* of the royal house of Balthas, who hoped for a career in the Roman service. *Alaric*, disappointed in his hopes at the death of *Theodosius*, was elected king by the Visigoths and ravaged Thrace to the gates of Constantinople. *Arcadius*, emperor of the east (393-408), was helpless until the arrival of *Stilicho*, *magister utriusque militiae* (field marshal of both services) in the east.

Stilicho, a Vandal by blood, married to *Theodosius's* sister, was guardian of *Theodosius's* sons, *Arcadius* and *Honorius*. He faced *Alaric* in Thessaly and the Peloponnese, avoiding battle, apparently on orders from *Honorius*. *Alaric* was made *magister militum* in Illyricum, and *Stilicho*, out of favor in Constantinople, was declared a public enemy.

401. *Alaric* began a thrust into Italy, probably from the triumph of an

anti-German faction in Constantinople, and ravaged Venetia. Simultaneously Radagaisus (an Ostrogoth) began an invasion of Raetia and Italy. Stilicho, firmly against any Germanic invasion of the west, repulsed Radagaisus.

402. Pollentia, a drawn battle between Stilicho and Alaric, was a strategic defeat for Alaric. Alaric's next advance was stopped, probably through an understanding with Stilicho. Haunted again (403) at Verona, the Visigoths withdrew to Epirus.

406. The Rhine frontier, denuded of troops for the defense of Italy, was crossed by a great wave of migrants, chiefly East Germans, Vandals, Sueves, and Alans (non-German). The usurper Constantine having crossed from Britain to Gaul, Alaric in Noricum was paid a huge sum of gold by the Senate, as a sort of retainer for his services against Constantine. Stilicho, his popularity undermined by these events and by the hostility of Constantinople, was overthrown. There is no evidence of treason by Stilicho. His execution was followed by a general massacre of the families of the barbarian auxiliaries in Italy, and some 30,000 of them went over to Alaric in Noricum.

410. Alaric took Rome after alternate sieges and negotiations. He sacked it for three days, and then moved south toward Africa, the granary of Italy. Turned back by the loss of his fleet, Alaric died and was buried in the bed of the Tiber. His brother-in-law Ataulf was elected to succeed him. Ataulf, originally bent on the destruction of the very name of Rome, now bent his energies to the fusion of Visigothic vigor and Roman tradition.

412. Ataulf led the Visigoths north, ravaged Etruria, crossed the Alps, ravaged Gaul and married (against her brother Honorius' will) Galla Placidia (414) after the Roman ritual. He was forced into Spain (415), where he was murdered. Wallia (415-c. 418), after the brief reign of Sigismund, succeeded him.

Ulfilas (311-381), a Gothic bishop of Arian convictions, invented the Gothic alphabet for his translation of the Bible. This translation, the first literary monument of the German invaders, had enormous influence, and recalls the wide extent of the Arian heresy, which won every important Germanic invader except the Franks, a development with the greatest political consequences, since the lands where the Germans settled were peopled by orthodox Roman Catholics.

Spain had already been overrun by a horde of Vandals, Sueves, and Alans (409),

and the Roman blockade made food hard to get. Wallia planned to cross to the African granary, but lost his ships, was forced to make terms with Honorius and restore Galla Placidia to her brother. He agreed to clear Spain of other barbarians. Succeeding in this he received the grant of *Aquitanica Secunda* (i.e. the land between the Loire and the Garonne) with Toulouse as a capital. Thus began the

419-507 KINGDOM OF TOULOUSE.

The Visigoths received two-thirds of the land, the remainder being left to the Roman proprietors. A Gothic state was created within the Roman state. Honorius, hoping to counteract alien influences, revived a Roman custom of holding provincial councils, decreeing an annual meeting of the leading officials and the chief landowners for discussion of common problems. The most important rulers of Toulouse were

419-451. Theodoric I, who fell in the battle of Châlons, and

466-484. Euric, whose reign marked the apogee of the kingdom. He continued the pressure of the Visigoths upon Gaul and Spain, and by 481 extended his domain from the Pyrenees to the Loire and eastward to the Rhone, securing Provence from Odovacar (481). Euric first codified Visigothic law, but the *Brevary of Alaric* (506), a codification of Roman law for Visigothic use, had tremendous influence among the Visigoths and among many other barbarian peoples. Under Visigothic rule the administration in general remained Roman and the language of government continued to be a Latin vernacular. The Gallo-Roman population and clergy were hostile to the Visigoths as Arians, and this hostility opened the way for the Frankish conquest (507), which reduced the Visigothic power to its Spanish domains.

507-711. The Visigothic Kingdom of Spain dragged out a miserable existence under more than a score of rulers, some mere phantoms, until the arrival of the Moslems (p. 163).

554. Belisarius' invasion of Spain, part of Justinian's reconstruction of the Roman Empire (p. 172), was a brilliant campaign, but reduced only the southeastern corner of Spain, later regained by the Visigoths who also reduced the Sueves in the north.

(3) The Vandals

406. The Vandals (Asding and Siling), allied with the Sciri and Alans, crossed the Rhine near the Main, followed the Moselle and Aisne (sacking Reims,

Amiens, Arras, Tournai, then turned southward into Aquitaine, and crossed the Pyrenees into Spain (409).

429-534. THE VANDAL KINGDOM IN AFRICA.

The Vandals and Alani had been established in southern Spain under Gunderic. His brother Gaiseric received an appeal from Boniface, the revolted Roman governor of Africa, following which the Vandals (perhaps 80,000 in number) crossed into Africa (429).

430. The first siege of Hippo failed, but Boniface, now reconciled to the regency of Galla Placidia, was annihilated, and the city fell (431). St. Augustine, Bishop of Hippo, died during the siege. The creation of a great Vandal power in Africa, supported as it soon was by a powerful navy, distracted the attention of the Roman government from the new barbarian kingdoms of the west and had a decisive effect of a negative kind.

In Africa the Vandals spared nobody and nothing and the treaty made with the Romans was no restraint. After the arrival of a fleet from Constantinople, a second treaty was made. Eudoxia, daughter of Valentinian, was betrothed to Gaiseric's son, Huneric, and the Vandals received most of the Roman territory except the region about Carthage.

429. Gaiseric took Carthage from the Romans and made it his capital and naval base.

455. Gaiseric attacked Rome, on the invitation (according to tradition) of Valentinian's widow Eudoxia. He took it easily, and for two weeks pillaged the city, scientifically and ruthlessly, but without wanton destruction.

In Africa the Vandals were hated as Arians, and they had to deal with serious Berber revolts, but their power was not broken until the

533-548. Vandalic Wars of Justinian. Belisarius quickly defeated the Carthaginian power of the Vandals; the ensuing Berber revolt was not put down until 548.

(4) The Burgundians

411-532. The Burgundians, arriving from the Oder-Wistula region, moved along the Main upward the Rhine, entered Gaul under King Gundicar, and finally settled as federates of the Roman Empire in upper Burgundy (i.e. the lands including Lyons, Vienne, Besançon, Geneva, Antun, Vacon). King Gundibald (d. 516) codified Burgundian law in the *Lex Gundobada*. The Burgundians were finally conquered by the sons of Clovis (c. 532), but the Burgundian state remained separate under Frankish

control with Merovingian princes until 613. After 613 it was a province of the Frankish Empire.

c. THE OSTROGOTHS IN ITALY, 489-554

On the breakup of the Hunnic Empire (after Nedao, 454), the Ostrogoths settled in Pannonia (their first settlement inside the Roman frontier) as federates of the empire. Under the Huns the emergence of a single ruler had been impossible. Thiodareks (ruler of the people) corrupted into Theodoric, educated as a hostage at Constantinople, was elected (471) merely a *gaw kuzg*, but soon became leader of his people on a march into the Balkan Peninsula where he forced the Emperor Leo to grant them lands in Macedonia. His ambition for imperial appointment was realized (483) when he was made *magister militum praesentalis* and (484) *consul*. He quarreled with the emperor and marched on Constantinople. To get rid of him the emperor commissioned him (informally) to expel Odovakar from Italy. Arriving in Italy (489) the Ostrogoths triumphed over Odovakar, but did not reduce Ravenna until 493. Theodoric killed Odovakar with his own hands and had his troops massacred.

489-526. THEODORIC THE GREAT. In general Theodoric continued Odovakar's policy, substituting Ostrogoths for Odovakar's Germans, and assigning one-third of the Roman estates (as Odovakar had probably done) to his people. Theodoric's rule was officially recognized (497) by Constantinople. Together with the emperors he named the consuls in the west, but never named an Ostrogoth. Theodoric was the only member of his people who was a Roman citizen, constitutionally the others were alien soldiers in the service of the empire. No Roman was in military command, no Ostrogoth in the civil service. Imperial legislation and coinage continued. The so-called *Edictum Theodorici* is a codification of Theodoric's administrative decrees rather than a body of legislation, as none of Theodoric's laws were anything more than clarifications of imperial legislation. Theodoric's secretary of state was the learned Italian, Cassiodorus, and the dual state was paralleled by a dual religious system. Theodoric was tolerant of the orthodox Catholics and a protector of the Jews. His chief aim was to civilize his people under the Roman environment and to keep peace.

Theodoric's co-operation with the other Germanic peoples was close, and he cemented his associations by marriage alliances (one daughter married Alaric II the Visi-

go to her in Burgundy, and he himself married Clovis' sister). He intervened to protect the Alamanni from Clovis and tried to save the Visigoths. Provence was acquired from Burgundy and annexed to Italy. He was regent and protector of his grandson Amalaric after Alaric II's death, and virtually ruled the Visigothic Kingdom until his death (526).

To the Italians Ostrogothic rule was alien and heretical and they resented it. The end of Theodoric's reign was marked by a growing ill-feeling and suspicion which may have been due to this. Boethius, the Roman philosopher and commentator on Aristotle, author of the *Consolation of Philosophy*, an official of Theodoric's government, and his father-in-law, the brilliant and polished Roman Symmachus, were both executed (c. 524) on a charge of treasonable conspiracy.

525-554. RECONQUEST OF ITALY BY THE EMPEROR. Justinian, as part of his grandiose reconstitution of the Roman Empire, dispatched Belisarius and later Narses who reduced the stubborn Ostrogoths and drove them over the Alps to an unknown end.

After the expulsion of the Ostrogoths the Exarchate of Ravenna was established under the Emperor Maurice (582-602). The exarch had military and civil powers and received full imperial honors. He exercised imperial control over the Church, including the Bishopric of Rome. War and pestilence had completely ruined northern Italy, Rome, in ruins, had sunk from her imperial position to be a provincial town, the way was open for the Lombard invaders.

Ravenna had been the capital of the west (c. 402-476) and was the home of Theodoric's brilliant court. The architecture of the city offers a unique series of examples of Roman and Romano-Byzantine buildings begun under the emperors and continued by Theodoric. The name and glory of Theodoric have survived in German tradition in Dietrich von Bern (i.e. of Verona, where he had a palace).

PROGRESS OF THE PAPACY. Gelasius (492-496) was the first pope to proclaim the independence of the papacy from both emperor and church council in matters of faith. He asserted that two powers rule the world: the *sacerdotium* and the *imperium*. The *sacerdotium*, since it is the instrument of human salvation, is superior to the *imperium*.

As soon as Italy ceased to be a ruling state, there began a long effort to create national unity and to establish national independence. The barbarian invasions had isolated Italy, accentuated the break with the

empire and left the pope as the sole native representative of ancient unity and Italian hegemony. At the same time the Ostrogoths (half romanized as they were) did not destroy Italian culture, but allowed the Church to transmit the Greco-Roman tradition (linguistic, social, cultural, administrative, and religious) in the west.

529. Western monasticism, representing a wide ascetic reaction against current corruption in life and supported by Jerome, Ambrose, and Augustine, had expanded rapidly in the 6th century and reached a chaotic condition ranging from extremes of eremitical asceticism to the laxest kind of cenobitic worldliness. Benedict of Nursia, scandalized at conditions, withdrew to Monte Cassino where he founded a colony and gave it (traditionally in 529) the famous *Benedictine Rule*. This rule, which dominated western monasticism for centuries, was a remarkable and characteristic Roman compromise adapted to the average man. It placed the monks under the control of an abbot, made each house autonomous in a loose federation (not strictly an order at all), and provided for careful recruiting and probation. Discipline was efficient but not extreme, and great stress was laid on labor, especially in the open air (*laborare est orare*). The individual was merged in an ascetic, self-contained, self-sufficient corporation. The spread of the Benedictines was rapid, and soon the only important survival of eremitical monasticism was in the Irish monks of St. Columban. The order became the chief instrument for the reform of the Frankish (Gallic) Church, and for the conversion and civilization of England and Germany. In the course of history it gave the Church 24 popes, 200 cardinals, 5000 saints, 15,000 writers and scholars.

Ruined by invasion, its aqueducts cut, Rome was reduced in population from a half million to perhaps 50,000. Its aristocracy had fled, and mediæval decay had replaced pagan grandeur. The city was not revived until the Renaissance.

554 Justinian's Pragmatic Sanction restored the Italian lands taken by the Ostrogoths and made a *pro forma* restoration of government, but agricultural lands were depopulated and grown into wilderness, the rural proprietors were sinking into serfdom. Town decline was similar. The Roman Senate ceased to function after 603 and the local *civitas* disappeared at about the same time.

Duces were appointed, probably over each *civitas*, as part of the imperial administration, but they gradually became landowners and their military functions dominated their civil duties. A fusion of the

ducal title and landownership ensued and a new class of hereditary military proprietors emerged beside the clergy and the old nobles. The details of this process are, of course, hard to determine, the more so as evidence is scant.

d. THE FRANKISH KINGDOM, 481-752

The Franks first appear as settlers on the lower Rhine in two divisions, the Salians (dwellers by the sea, *sa*) and the Ripuarians (dwellers by the riverbank, *ripa*). By the end of the 4th century the Salians were established in the area between the Meuse and the Scheldt as federates of the Roman Empire; the Ripuarians in the tract between the Rhine and Meuse. They formed no permanent confederations, and, unlike the other Germanic peoples, did not migrate as a nation, but expanded.

431-751. THE SALIAN FRANKS UNDER THE MEROVINGIANS

451. Chlodio (son of Merovech) invaded Artois, and was defeated by Aetius. Salian Franks were in the Roman forces at the battle of Châlons. King Childeric (d. 481) fought as a federate of the empire at Orléans when Aetius defeated the Visigoths, and he later defeated the Saxons on the Loire. His tomb was found (1653) at Tournai, the "capital" of the Salians.

481-511. CLOVIS (Chlodovech) son of Childeric, in the service of Julius Nepos and Zeno. He defeated the Gallo-Roman general Syagrius at Soissons (486), expanding Salian power to the Loire. The story of the Soissons vase is significant of the friendly relations between Clovis and Bishop Remigius. Siegbert, the Ripuarian, defeated an Alamannic invasion at Tolbiac (496) with Salian support. Clovis in the same year defeated the Alamanni (Strasbourg?) and later, after election as King of the Ripuarians, emerged as master of the Franks on both sides of the Rhine.

496. The traditional date of the conversion of Clovis to Roman Catholicism is 496. He had previously married a Burgundian, Clotilda, who was of the Roman communion. The Burgundians in general were Arians, and Clovis' choice may have been deliberate. In any case his conversion won him powerful papal and episcopal support and opened the way to wide conquests from the heretic (i.e. Arian) German peoples. Burgundy was conquered (after 500), the Visigoths defeated at Vouillé (507), and their whole kingdom north of the Pyrenees (except Septimania and Provence) was soon subjugated. These conquests were warmly supported by the Gallo-Roman

clergy as a religious war. Clovis founded the Church of the Holy Apostles (St. Geneviève) at Paris, and shortly moved his "capital" from Soissons to Paris. He was made an honorary consul by the Emperor Anastasius, a price the Franks

511-628. Divisions of the Frankish lands after the death of Clovis: (1) His four sons established four capitals — Metz, Orléans, Paris, Soissons. Expansion eastward continued along the upper Elbe, Burgundy was added, and the territory of the Ostrogoths north of the Alps. After a period of ruthless conflict, only Lothair (Chlothar) survived, and for a brief time (558-561) the Frankish lands were under one head again. (2) Lothair's division of his lands among his four sons led to a great feud from which three kingdoms emerged: Austrasia (capital Metz) lying to the east (Auster) and mostly Teutonic; Neustria (the "new land" as the name implies) (capital Soissons), Gallo-Roman in blood, Burgundian, which had no king of its own but joined Neustria under a common ruler. The Prince of Neustria exterminated the rival house in Austrasia, but the local baronage preserved the kingdom's identity. Under Lothair II all three kingdoms were united again (613) under one ruler.

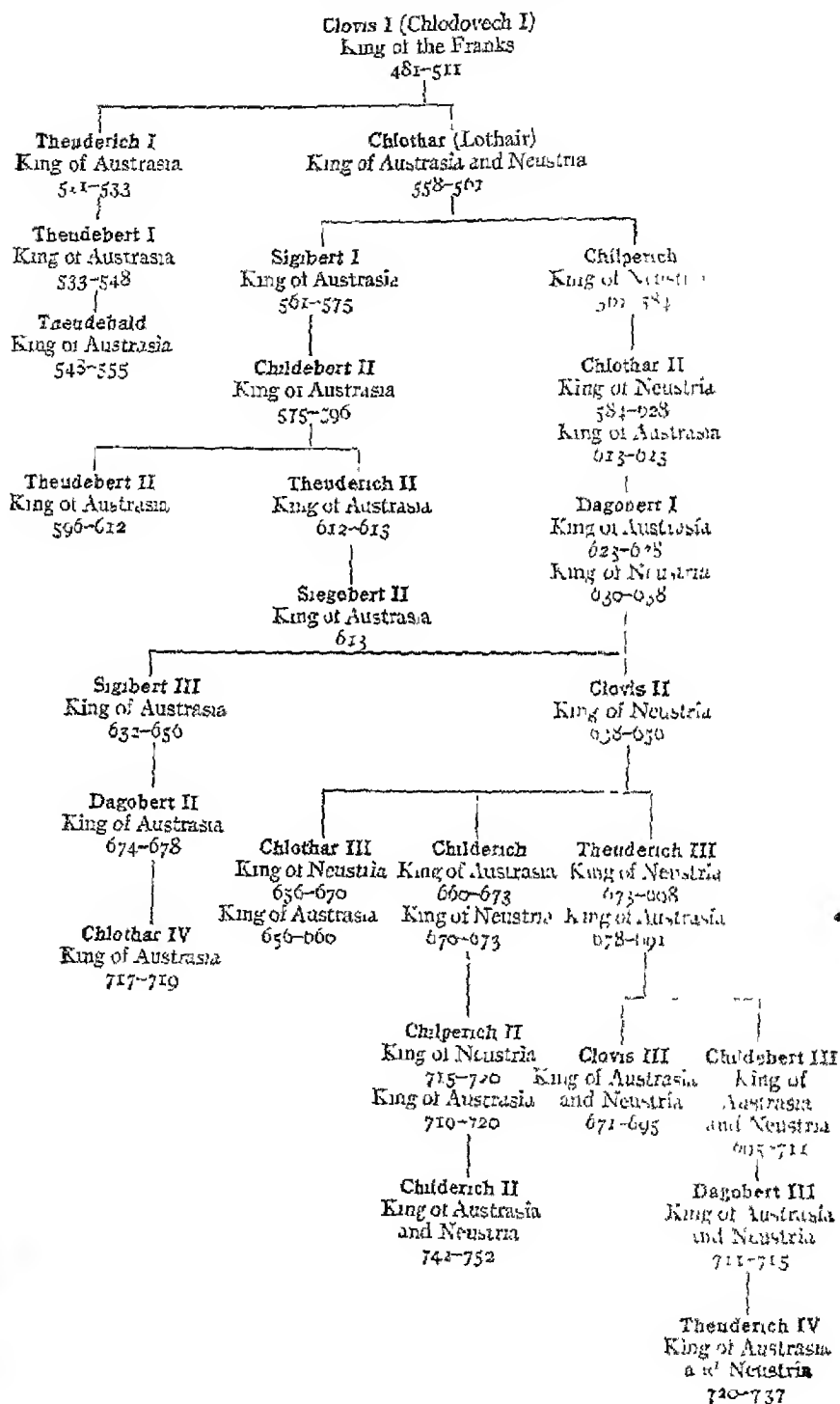
628-638. Dagobert (Lothair's son), the last strong ruler of the Merovingian House, made wide dynastic alliances and found wise advisers in Bishop Arnulf and Pepin of Landen. His firm rule led to a revolt. Under the *rois faineants* following Dagobert the mayors of the palace emerged from a menial position to a dominant role in the government both in Austrasia and Neustria.

Merovingian government retained the Roman *civitas* as a unit of administration and set a count (*comes* or *graf*) over it. The source of law was not the king, but local custom administered by the *graf* with the aid of local landowners. Military leaders of large districts were the *duces* who were over several counts. Land grants were made in lieu of pay to officials.

Gregory, Bishop of Tours (c. 540-594), a Frank, wrote in Latin the *History of the Franks*, the best single source on the history of the Merovingian period.

Decline of the royal power under the last of the Merovingians, and beginning of feudal decentralization. (1) Concentration of landownership in the hands of a few — a landed aristocracy of which the mayors of the palace were representative. (2) The breakdown of the old clan and tribal organization without an effective state to replace it leading to personal and economic de-

The Merovingian Kings



pendence on private individuals rather than on the state (e.g. commendation, *beneficium*, immunity) (3) Military service on horseback became attached to the benefice as early as the 8th century, for example, Martel's cavalry (see *infra*) for service against the Saracens. Since these grants involved church lands to a considerable degree, Martel in effect compelled the Church to help support national defense (4) The royal domain was exempt from visitation except by the king's personal administrators. This immunity was extended to royal lands granted to others, and then to lands never in the royal domain. The upshot of the system was complete decentralization by the delegation of the royal powers to local officials who tended to become entirely independent.

The Carolingians

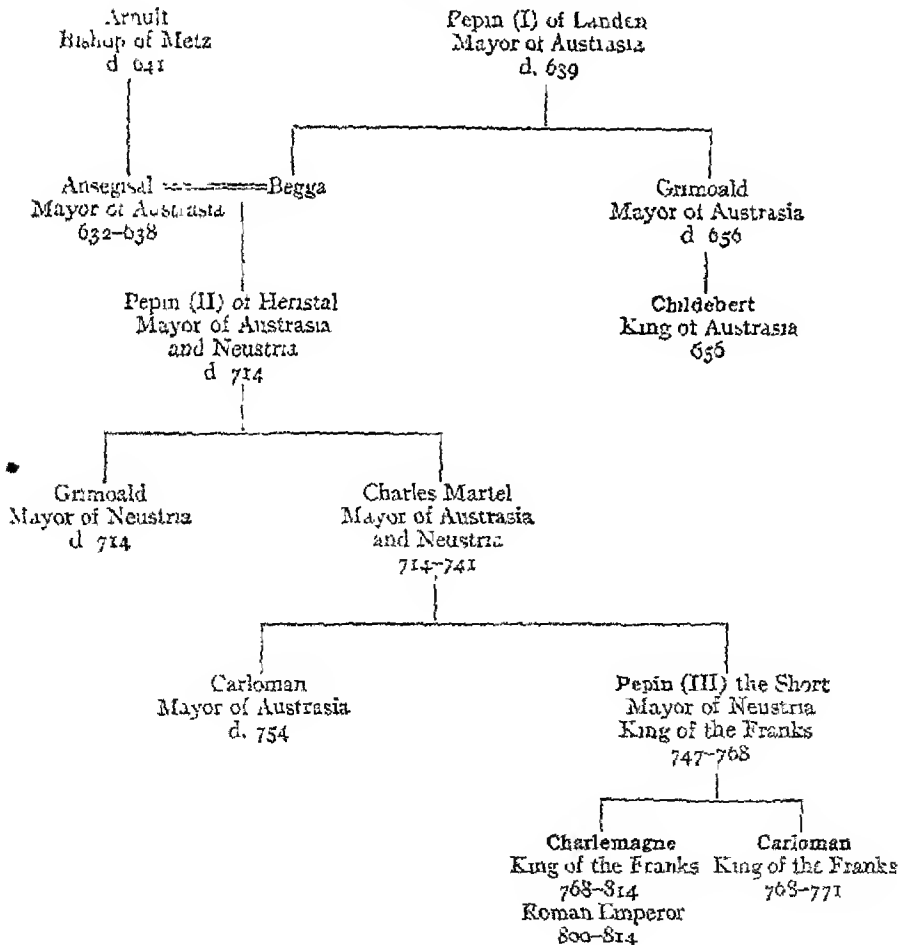
Emergence of the Carolingians in Austrasia. The son of Arnulf married the daughter of Count Pepin I (of Landen, d. 639), mayor of the palace, founding the line later called Carolingian.

656. Pepin's son Grimoald made a premature effort to usurp the crown, which cost him and his son their lives, and led to a reaction in favor of the Merovingians.

678-681. Ebroin, mayor in Neustria, united the mayoralties under one house, he was murdered (681).

687. Pepin II (of Herstal), grandson of Pepin I, gained supremacy in Austrasia and Neustria by his victory at Tertry.

The House of Pepin



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The kingdom was on the verge of dissolution (ducal separatism), and Pepin began an effort to reduce the landed aristocracy from which he himself had sprung.

714-741 Charles Martel (i.e. the Hammer) Pepin's son, an ally of the Lombards, supported Boniface's mission in Germany (Boniface testified that his achievements would have been impossible without Martel's aid)

732. Martel's great victory at Tours arrested the advance of the Moslems in the west, and was followed by their final retreat over the Pyrenees (759).

Pepin's conquest of the Frisians was continued, five wars were waged against the Saxons, and powerful decentralizing forces (notably in Burgundy and Alamannia) were broken down

739 Pope Gregory III, threatened by the Lombards, sent an embassy to Martel, and offered the title of *consul* in return for protection against the Lombards. Charles, an ally of the Lombard king, ignored the appeal. At the end of his life Martel, like a true sovereign, divided the Merovingian lands between his sons, Austrasia and the German duchies going to Carloman, Neustria and Burgundy to Pepin. Carloman and Pepin ruled together, 741-747, Pepin ruled alone, 747-768

(Cont p 158)

e THE LOMBARDS AND THE POPES, 568-774

Under the Emperor Augustus the Lombards were still established on the lower Elbe (Bardengau) and were defeated (5 AD) by the Romans. Their history for the next 400 years is confused and often blank. They were members of the Hunnic Empire and were subdued by the Heruls (505), whom they then destroyed (508). They were probably Arians by this time. Resistance to the Gepids began (c 546). They were given land by Justinian in Noricum and Pannonia and aided (553) the imperial attacks on the Ostrogoths. The Avars arrived (c 560) from the Volga, entered Thuringia (562), were defeated by the Franks, and allied themselves (c 565) with the Lombards against the Gepids, who were annihilated. The Lombards moved on toward Italy and the Avars occupied Dacia. Alboin (d. 573), the Lombard king, killed the Gepid king, Cunmund, with his own hand and married his daughter Rosamund (story of Cunmund's skull as a drinking-cup). The Lombards took part in Belisarius' conquest, and soon the nation began to move south toward Italy.

568. THE LOMBARD CONQUEST OF ITALY.

Italy, worn out by the Gothic wars, famine and pestilence, offered little resistance. Constantinople was indifferent and the conquest was easy. The Lombards, always few in numbers, had associated other peoples (including 20,000 Saxons who soon departed, and some Slavs) in their invasion, but even then they were not numerous enough to occupy the whole peninsula. Rome and Naples were never held, and Ravenna only briefly. The coast was not really mastered. The Lombards (unlike even the Vandals) did not enter into a compact with the empire, and Italian feeling against them was bitter. Pavia became the capital (Italy, until 774, had always two and usually three capitals: Rome, the papal capital, Ravenna, the Byzantine capital, and Pavia the Lombard capital after 573) and the peninsula was a mosaic of Byzantine, papal, and Lombard jurisdictions.

Lombard occupation (virtually military rule at first) covered inland Liguria, inland Tuscany, inland Venetia, the Duchy of Spoleto and the Duchy of Benevento. Imperial Italy comprised Venice and the land from north of Ravenna to the south of Ancona, and included the Duchy of Rome and the Duchy of Naples, as well as the toe and heel of Italy. *Hospitalitas* was revived and one-third the produce of the land (not one-third the land) was given to the Lombards. Lombards also took the lands of the dead and the exiled. At first lands were assigned with a full title, but Liutprand introduced (713, 735) leases, and the grant of estates without permanent tenure.

The Lombards took Roman titles and names, and in the end accepted Roman Catholicism. By the time of Liutprand* (712-744) their speech was clearly Italian, but the natives were loyal to their past, and remained sharply divided from the Lombards. Legally there was a dual system of private law, and in Lombard *territories* there was a dual episcopal system (i.e. Arian and Roman).

573-584. Alboin's murder was followed by the rule of Cleph (d. 575) and then by ten years of anarchy and private war under a loose federation of dukes (some 36 in number). Roman Catholic opposition and papal negotiations with the Franks alarmed the Lombards, and led to the election of

584-590. Authari, a grandson of Alboin, who was endowed with half the baronial lands as royal domain. The dukedoms were gradually absorbed (the marches like Friuli, Trent, Turin, ... ved longest)

Author's widow Theodolinda, a devoted Roman Catholic bidden to choose a husband who should also be king, selected a Thuringian,

590-615. Duke Agilulf, of Tunn, who was friendly to the Roman Church and the true founder of the Lombard state Gregory the Great blocked an Italian conspiracy against the Lombards. Rothari (630-652) became a Roman Catholic. He collected Lombard customary law in Latin and began the consolidation of Lombard power. Eventually Roman law triumphed and Lombard law survived only in the schools (e.g. Pavia).

The Italian bishops since 476 had been the leaders of the peaceful civilians in the cities, the protectors of the oppressed, and the dispensers of charity. Under the Lombards a system of episcopal immunities emerged which made the bishops virtually local temporal sovereigns and enabled them to preserve the local spirit of municipal independence and organization (e.g. consuls, guilds). The urban population was free of feudal bonds, and the town walls (often built by the bishops) were refuges. Milan resumed her greatness and almost equaled Rome. These developments prepared the way for the great assertion of Italian town independence against Roman clerical and German feudal encroachments. Paul the Deacon (c. 720-c. 800), the first important mediaeval historian, wrote the *History of the Lombards*.

590-604. GREGORY THE GREAT. Of medium height, good figure, large, bald head, brown eyes, aquiline nose, thick red lips, prominent bearded chin, with exquisite tapering hands. His family was a rich senatorial house and Gregory was prefect of Rome (573). He founded (c. 574) six monasteries in Sicily and one at Rome (St. Andrews) into which he immediately retired as a monk. Embassy to Constantinople (c. 579-580). As Abbot of St. Andrews (580) his rule was severe. Elected pope (590) against his will he began a vigorous administration. Discipline within his patriarchate was rigorous (stress on celibacy, close watch on elections, insistence on exclusive clerical jurisdiction over clerical offenders). Church revenue was divided into four shares for the bishop, the clergy, the poor, and church buildings. His administration of the wide estates of the Church was honest and brilliant, and the revenue was expended to meet the tremendous demands on Rome for charity. The pope continued the old imperial corn doles in Rome and elsewhere, aqueducts were repaired, urban administration especially in Rome reformed.

Outside his patriarchal juris-

diction Gregory expanded the influence and prestige of the pope, maintaining that the pope was by divine designation head of all churches. Appeals to Rome were heard even against the Patriarch of Constantinople, whose claim to the title of universal bishop was denied. Gregory boldly assumed the rôle of the emperor in the west, and the powers of a temporal prince, counterbalancing the prestige of Constantinople. From his administration date the foundations of later claims to papal absolutism. Gregory was the real leader against the Lombards, appointing governors of cities, directing the generals in war, and receiving from Constantinople pay for the army.

As the first monk to become pope, Gregory made a close alliance between the Benedictines and the papacy (at the expense of the bishops). The monks were given charters and protected from the bishops, the Benedictine Rule was imposed, and a great missionary campaign was begun with monkish aid. (1) The mission to Britain (596) under Augustine of Canterbury and the conversion of England provided a base from which the Frankish (Gallic) Church was later reformed, (2) campaigns against paganism in Gaul, Italy, and Sicily, and against heresy in Africa and Sicily.

Gregory was the last of the four great Latin Fathers, and first of the mediaeval prelates, a link between the classical Greco-Roman tradition and the mediaeval Romano-German. Not a great scholar, he was a great popularizer, and spread the doctrines of Augustine of Hippo throughout the west. At the same time he gave wide currency through his *Dialogues* to the popular (often originally pagan) ideas of angels, demons, devils, relic worship, miracles, the doctrine of purgatory and the use of allegory. Gregory reveals the clerical contempt for classical Latin which profoundly influenced the Latin of the Middle Ages. His *Pastoral* remained for centuries an essential in the education of the clergy. There was a school of music at Rome but how much Gregory had to do with it, and how much with the introduction of the Gregorian Chant, is doubtful.

Gregory introduced the papal style *Servus Servorum Dei*.

CONTINUED ALIENATION OF ITALY FROM THE EAST (1) The Monothelite controversy, condemnation by the Lateran Synod (649) of Emperor Heraclius' *Echtheses* (of 638) and Emperor Constant II's *Typo* of 648. Arrest (653) by the exarch of Italy Martin I (649-655), who died in exile in the east. The Council of Constantinople (680-681) compromised on the controversy, taking a position in favor of Rome. The Con-

oil of Constantinople (692) reasserted the equality of the Patriarchates of Constantinople and Rome. (2) Emperor Leo the Isaurian's (717-740) attempt to bring Italy back to obedience heavy taxation to reduce the great landowners angered Pope Gregory II (the largest landowner in Italy) and Leo's iconoclastic decree (726) aroused all Italy Gregory III excommunicated all Iconoclasts (731) Gregory's defeat and final humiliation weakened the pope and opened the way for the final Lombard advance.

712-744. DESTRUCTION OF THE LOMBARD KINGDOM Luitprand, fearing Frankish, Slavic, Hungarian, Byzantine, and papal hostility, began to consolidate his kingdom, reducing the duchies of Benevento and Spoleto Ravenna was taken temporarily During the Iconoclastic controversy Luitprand's sincere efforts at rapprochement with the papacy met a brief success

749-756. Aistulf continued Luitprand's policy of consolidation. The pope, alarmed at Lombard progress, had already (741) made overtures to Charles Martel Martel, busy with the Moslems, remained faithful to his alliance with the Lombards, but Aistulf's continued advance brought a visit (753) from Pope Stephen II. Stephen had already begun negotiations with Pepin, and the mutual needs of the rising papacy and the upstart Carolingian dynasty drew them into alliance

754, 756 Pepin in two expeditions forced Aistulf to abandon the Pentapolis and Ravenna (bringing the Lombards virtually to their holdings of 681) Legally the lands involved in the Donation of Pepin (756) belonged to the Eastern Empire. The Donation was a tacit recognition of implicit claims of the popes to be the heirs of the empire in Italy. Most important from the papal point of view was the fact that the Church had won a powerful military ally outside Italy Henceforth the Carolingians maintained a protectorate over the papacy in Italy

774 Charlemagne, heir to the traditions of Pepin, having repudiated the daughter of the Lombard king, Desiderius, appeared in Italy to protect the pope After a nine-month siege Pavia was taken, Spoleto and Benevento were conquered, Charles absorbed the Lombard Kingdom into the rising Frankish Empire, and assumed the crown of the Lombards On a visit (774) to Rome (the first of any Frankish monarch), Charlemagne confirmed the Donation of Pepin, but made it plain that he was sovereign even in the papal lands At no time did Charlemagne allow the pope any but a primacy of honor (in this respect following the

strict Byzantine tradition) The Donation of Pepin was the foundation of the Papal States and the true beginning of the temporal power of the papacy. Henceforth there was neither the Lombard menace nor the overlordship of the exarch to interfere with the rising papal monarchy In this sense the fall of the Lombard Kingdom was decisive in papal history It was equally decisive in Italian history, for the papal victory over the Lombards terminated the last effective effort to establish national unity and a national government until the end of the 19th century For the Carolingian monarchy the episode was equally significant

Under the successors of Charlemagne the emperors continued to participate in the papal elections and did what they could to protect Italy against the attacks of the Moslems from Africa

827-831. The Moslems conquered Sicily
837. They attacked Naples, pillaged Ancona (839) and captured Bari (840)
846. In the battle of Licosa, Duke Sergius of Naples defeated the Moslems at sea

847-848. Construction of the Leonine Wall by Pope Leo IV (847-855) to defend St. Peter's from the Moslems

875-877. The Emperor Charles the Bald continued to support the papacy against the invader and came to Rome (873) to be crowned, having forced Charles the Fat to retreat and having induced his brother Carloman to sign a truce and withdraw He was then elected King of Italy by the local magnates

888. Berengar of Friuli was crowned emperor at Pavia

891. Guido of Spoleto was consecrated emperor with his son Lambert as co-emperor and co-king

893 Zwentibold (illegitimate son of Arnulf) was sent to Italy in response to an appeal from Pope Formosus (891-896), but he accomplished nothing. Arnulf then came in person (894) and received an oath of fealty from the Italian magnates, but Guido continued as emperor and was succeeded by

892-899. Lambert. Arnulf embarked upon a second expedition, took Rome and was formally crowned (896)

The Papacy in the Carolingian Period

POPE NICHOLAS I (858-867), one of the few great popes between Gregory I and Gregory VII, was the arbiter of western Christendom Elected by the favor of Louis II Three great controversies (1) Support of Ignatius, Patriarch of Constantinople resulting in the excommunication (833)

of Ignatius' rival, Photius. Photius' futile deposition (867) of Nicholas. This controversy brought the Eastern and Western Churches closer to the final rupture (1054). (2) Discipline of King Lothair of Lorraine because of the divorce of his wife Theutberga. Lothair had been allowed (Synod of Aix) by his pliant bishops to remarry, and Nicholas reopened the case at the Synod of Metz (863), which found for Lothair. Nicholas (supported by Charles the Bald) quashed the entire proceeding, disciplined the bishops, and, despite the invasion (864) of the Leonine City by Louis II, compelled Lothair to submit. (3) Vindication of the right of appeal to Rome by a bishop against his metropolitan — humiliation of the powerful Archbishop Hincmar of Reims. First papal citation (863) of the *Forged Decretals* (brought to Rome, 864). Emergence of the theory that no bishop may be deposed or elected without papal approval.

867- Decline of the papacy, after the pontificate of Nicholas and the death of Louis II. As the popes had no powerful protectors outside Italy until 961, they fell increasingly under the dominance of the Roman and Italian feudal aristocracy. The lapse of the imperial power left room for the insinuation of a new doctrine of papal autonomy, well formulated in the *False Decretals*. Outside Italy the relaxation of papal control and the decline of papal prestige, accompanied by the rise of dominant local feudal lords, accentuated the power of the bishops and made the unity of the western Church a mere shadow until the papacy, having learned to cope with feudalism in the second half of the 11th century, once again made its supremacy felt in the Church.

(Cont. p. 215)

f. THE EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE AND ITS DISINTEGRATION

747-768. PEPIN THE SHORT, who attempted to conciliate the Church by granting and restoring lands to it.

768. Pepin was elected king by the Frankish magnates. Both the house of Pepin and the papacy (in the act of usurping political control from the emperor at Constantinople) needed each other's support. The immediate need of the popes was protection against the expanding Lombard monarchy. Aistulf, King of the Lombards, had taken Ravenna (751), the seat of the exarch, besieged Rome, and exacted tribute.

754. Pope Stephen II arrived in Gaul and conferred Pepin and by conferring

the title *Patricius* (which could legally come only from Constantinople) designated him in a sense *regent and protector of Italy*. The net result was to give some shadow of authority to Pepin's new title as King of the Franks.

754. Pepin marched into Italy, defeated the Lombards, and required them to hand over the exarchate and Pentapolis to the pope. The Lombards failed to do so.

756. Pepin returned and, after defeating the Lombards again, made his famous Donation. The Donation of Pepin (which Pepin had no legal right to make) established the Papal States (*Patrimonium Petri*) and began the temporal power of the papacy. It also established the Franks, a distant, non-Italian power as the allies and defenders of the papacy.

759. Pepin conquered Septimania, disciplined Aquitaine, and so brought effective Frankish rule to the Pyrenees. On his death his lands were given to his sons: Charles receiving Austrasia, Neustria, and northern Aquitaine; Carloman, southern Aquitaine, Burgundy, Provence, Septimania. The brothers ruled together, 768-771, Charles alone, 771-814.

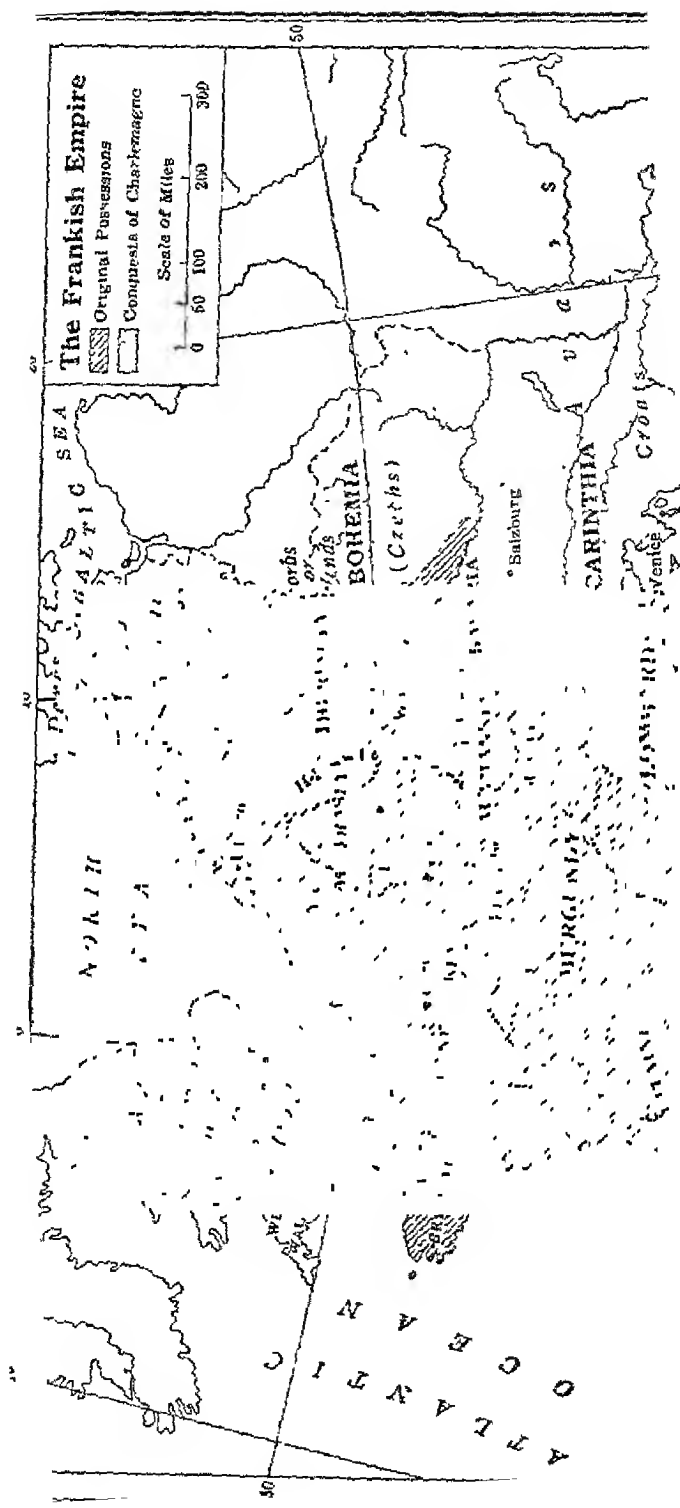
771-814 CHARLES THE GREAT (Charlemagne), a reign of the first magnitude in European history. Charles was a typical German, six feet in height, a superb swimmer, of athletic frame, with large, expressive eyes and merry disposition. He understood Greek, spoke Latin, but could not learn to write. He preferred the Frankish dress. In general he continued the Frankish policy. (1) expansion of Frankish rule to include all the Germans was completed (omitting only Scandinavia and Britain), (2) close understanding with the papacy, (3) support of church reform (which settled the foundations of mediaeval Christian unity).

Italian conquest and reduction of German tribes: Already overlord of the Lombards, Charles married King Desiderius' daughter, soon repudiated her, conquered

773-774. Lombard Italy, and became King of the Lombards, whose kingdom was absorbed into the Frankish Empire. Charlemagne also established his rule in Venetia, Istria, Dalmatia, and Corsica.

787-788. Bavaria was incorporated, its Duke Tassilo first made a vassal and then deposed.

785. Saxony, after a costly and bitter struggle of thirty years, involving eighteen campaigns, was conquered, and Christianity forcibly introduced despite stubborn pagan resistance. Foundation of the Bishopric of Bremen. 8)



The Frankish Empire

Original Possessions
Conquests of Charlemagne

Scale of Miles
0 50 100 200 300

Atlantic Sea

North Africa

Atlantic Ocean

Bohemia (Czechs)

Salzburg

Carinthia

Venetia

795-796. The Avars (on the lower Danube) were reduced.

801. After the Frankish defeat at Roncesvalles (778), the Moslems in northeastern Spain were gradually reduced (Barcelona taken, 801), and the Spanish March created.

Establishment of marks (after c. 782) to hold the conquests. Dake Mark, the Almark (against the Wends), Thuringian Mark, Bohemian Mark, Ostmark (against the Avars), Friulan Mark (on the Italian border), and the Spanish Mark. These marks were also centers of colonization and germanization.

Relation to the Church. Charlemagne held it to be his duty to defend the Church and the pope, and to maintain the faith. He treated the pope like any Frankish bishop, but recognized his unique spiritual prestige. His visit (774) to Rome was the first of a Frankish sovereign: the Donation of Pepin was confirmed, but the terms are not clear. The pope crowned Charles' son, Pepin, King of Italy (781), his son Louis, King of Aquitaine.

REVIVAL OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE WEST. Pope Leo III, a submissive pontiff, noticed Charlemagne of his election to the Holy See, and dated his pontificate by Charlemagne's regnal years. Driven from Rome (799) by a conspiracy and riot, he sought refuge at Charlemagne's court and was restored by Frankish troops.

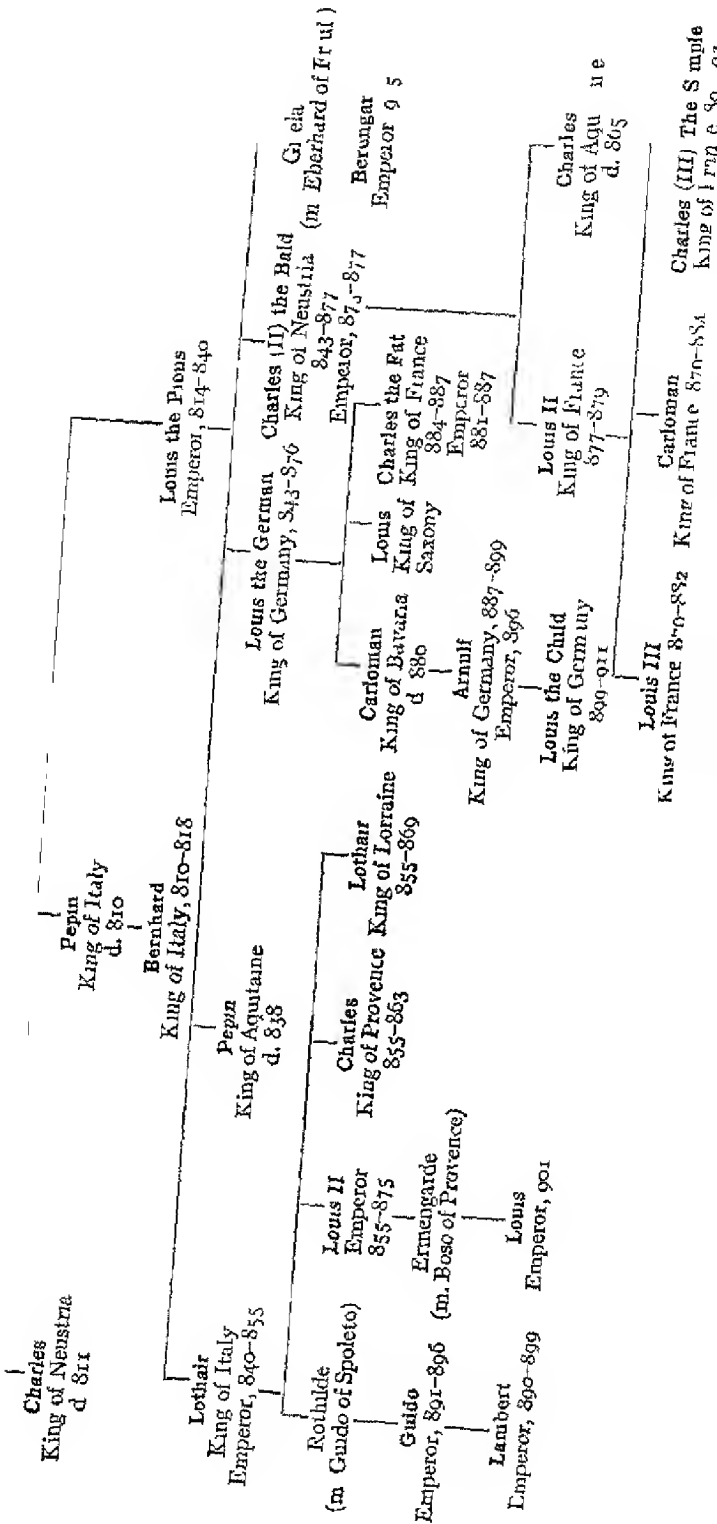
800. Charlemagne arrived in Rome, allowed Leo to clear himself of a series of charges by oath (avoiding the trial of a pope), and was crowned emperor in St. Peter's on Christmas Day. According to Einhard, Charlemagne avowed his regret at the coronation. He cannot have been unaware of the general plan, and his feeling may have been due to modesty or concern at Byzantine reactions or hostility to papal pretensions. Charlemagne disregarded the imperial title in a paration of the empire (806), and arranged to have his son Louis crown himself (813). Theoretically the coronation of 800 marked a return to the dualism of Theodosius I (i.e. two emperors over an undivided empire). In fact the Frankish Empire was more German than Roman in population and institutions. Byzantium regarded Charlemagne as a usurper, Charlemagne seems to have meditated a marriage with the Empress Irene as one solution of the difficulty. The papal coronation, an act of rebellion in Byzantine eyes, marked a definite break between Rome and Constantinople. The Emperor Michael I recognized (812) Charlemagne's

title in the west in return for sovereignty in Venice, Istria, Dalmatia.

GOVERNMENT: (1) In the Church: Charlemagne's rule was a theocracy, and he insisted on supremacy over the Frankish Church, legislating on all subjects, settling dogmatic questions, deciding appointments, presiding at synods. (2) In the Frankish state: centralization continued, taxation in the Roman sense (which survived only under local and private auspices) was replaced by services in return for land grants (the economic basis of Carolingian society). Such services included forced labor on public works among the lower ranks, the provision of food for the court and public officials on duty, and judicial and military obligations (primarily among the upper ranks). Charlemagne's continuous campaigns reduced the small farmers, accentuating the tendency to serfdom. Charlemagne tried to offset this tendency by allowing groups of poorer farmers to co-operate in sending a single soldier, and by excusing the poorest from ordinary field service. Systematization of the army and of military service was also begun. Commendation and immunity continued, and the basis of later feudal development was firmly established.

Administration: The tribal dukes were largely eliminated and government was carried on by counts, appointed for life, but frequently removed. This system was extended to Italy, Bavaria, and Saxony. To prevent the counts establishing an hereditary tenure, and to limit local abuses, the *missi dominici* (usually a bishop and count) were introduced (802) as officers on circuit in a given district. The *missi* held their own courts, had power to remove a count for cause, and were charged with the supervision of financial, judicial, and clerical administration. They formed an essential link between the local and central government. Under the counts were viscounts and vicars (*centenarii*). *Margraves* (*Mark grafen*) were set over the marks with extended powers to meet the needs of their position. Local administration of justice was reformed by the introduction of *scabini*, local landowners appointed by the counts to sit as permanent judiciary officers.

The Carolingian revival of learning: Charlemagne, perhaps out of concern for the improvement of ecclesiastical education, set up the Palace School under Alcuin from the School of York, later Abbot of Tours. Various clerics were also given liberal grants that they might establish local schools, though no general system of education was introduced in the Frankish Empire. In general, the source of inspiration was Latin



rather than Greek. Einhard, for example, who came to the Palace School from Fulda, wrote his biography of Charlemagne in the manner of Suetonius. At Charlemagne's court were gathered scholars and literary men of almost every nationality, including Peter of Pisa, the grammarian, the Visigothic poet Theodulf, the Lombard historian, Paul the Deacon (*History of the Lombards*). Great care was given to the copying of texts, and the refined Carolingian minuscule was evolved.

814-887. THE DISINTEGRATION OF THE CAROLINGIAN EMPIRE

Such efficiency as the Carolingian government possessed under Charlemagne derived rather from his personality than from permanent institutions. Local administration was carried on by unpaid officials whose compensation was a share of the revenue. Local offices tended to become hereditary. The tentative partitions of the empire in Charlemagne's lifetime followed Frankish tradition, and had no relation to any racial or national elements. One son, Louis the Pious survived, and the empire was passed on to him (quite by accident) undivided. The decisive stage in the partition of the empire came under Louis and his heirs.

814-843. LOUIS the Pious (emperor), educated at the Palace School, crowned in his father's lifetime. Sincerely religious, a reformer in his court, the Frankish Church, and the monasteries, he allowed himself to be crowned again by the pope (816). Ineffectual as a soldier and ruler, Louis and his heirs concentrated on a long struggle (leading to civil war) over territorial questions, to the neglect of government, foreign policy and defense, a program which hastened the breakup of the empire.

817-838. A significant series of partitions involving Louis' sons: Lothair (d. 855), Louis the German (d. 876), Pepin (d. 838), and their half-brother, Charles the Bald (d. 877).

The division of 817: Aquitaine and parts of Septimania and Burgundy went to Pepin as sub-king, Bavaria and the marches to the east were assigned to Louis the German as sub-king undivided, Francia, German and Gallic, and most of Burgundy were retained by Louis and his eldest son Lothair. Italy went to a third sub-king.

The division of 838. Charles the Bald was assigned Neustria and to this was added Aquitaine on the death of Pepin. Charles' holding, which had no name, approximated (accidentally) mediaeval France and was mainly Romance in speech.

840-855. LOTHAIR I (emperor). On the death of Louis the Pious the three heirs continued their struggle, and after the indecisive battle of Fontenay (841) Carolingian prestige sank to a new depth. Charles the Bald and Louis the German formed an alliance against Lothair (who was supported by the clergy in the interests of unity) in the bilingual (Teutonic and Romance) Oaths of Strassburg (842), sworn by the rulers and their armies, each in their own vernacular. They then forced a family compact upon Lothair at Verdun.

843. THE TREATY OF VERDUN divided the administration and control of the Carolingian Empire as follows: (1) Lothair kept the (empty) title of emperor, and was King of Italy and of an amorphous territory (the "middle kingdom") which was bounded roughly by the Scheldt, the upper Meuse, Saône, and Rhone on the west, and by the Rhine and Frisia on the east (i.e. the territory of Provence, Burgundy, and what was later called *Lotharinga*). (2) Louis the German, as King of the (East) Franks, ruled a realm essentially Teutonic in blood, speech, and geography, extending from the Rhine (except Frisia) to the eastern frontier of the empire. (3) Charles the Bald, as King of the (West) Franks, received a realm (loosely called *Karolingia* for a time) made up of West Francia and Aquitaine, Gascony, Septimania, etc., mainly Romance in speech, approximating mediaeval France in general outline.

855-875. LOUIS II (emperor) At Lothair's death his lands were divided as follows among his sons: Louis II received Italy, Charles (d. 863) the newly formed Kingdom of Provence (centered around the city of Arles), and Lothair II the inchoate aggregate (from Frisia to the Alps and from the Rhine to Scheldt) which began to be called *Lotharii regnum* or *Lotharingia* (modern Lorraine).

870. Treaty of Meerssen, following the death (869) of Lothair II, King of Lorraine. Louis the German forced Charles the Bald (crowned King of Lorraine, 869) to divide equally and solely on the basis of revenue the lands of Lothair outside of Italy. Thus Louis gained a strip of land which brought his frontier west of the Rhine.

875-877. CHARLES THE BALD, emperor.

877-881. Anarchy and interregnum in the empire.

879. The Kingdom of Burgundy (Cisjuran Burgundy) was established by Boso of Provence.

885 The Kingdom of *Juran Burgundy* (e. Beaunçon, Basel, Lausanne, Geneva, etc.) was erected by Rudolf I. It passed to the empire by bequest in the time of Conrad II c. 787-925 THE NINTH CENTURY INVASIONS.

(1) In the North Bands of Northmen (Scandinavians, p. 170), under pressure of population and resentful at the rise of local kings pushed outward from Scandinavia. The Swedes penetrated into Russia, the Norwegians and Danes moved into the northern islands (including the British Isles) and south to the Continent. Within a half century of the first raid (c. 787) on England, the British Isles had been flooded. Masters of the sea in the west, the Northmen pushed inland from the mouths of the great rivers (e.g. Rhine, Scheldt, Somme, Seine, Loire), sacking the cities (e.g. Utrecht, Paris, Nantes, Bordeaux, Hamburg, Seville). "Normandy" was invaded (841) and a simultaneous attack made (845) on all three Frankish kingdoms. The Mediterranean was entered (843). In the east Constantinople was attacked by Swedes (Rus), who came down from Russia. A great attack on Paris (885) was heroically met by Count Odo (Rudes), son of Robert the Strong. Raids were pushed farther into France and the Mediterranean in the course of the 9th century.

(2) In the East. Bulgarian expansion produced a great Bulgar state between the Frankish and Byzantine Empires. The Bulgars were converted to the Greek communion (870). Hungarians (Magyars), closely followed by Petchenegs, crossed the Carpathians and the lower Danube, pushing into Venetia, Lombardy, Bavaria, Thuringia, Saxony, the Rhineland, Lorraine, and Burgundy (925).

(3) In the Mediterranean. Moslem domination of Sicily, Corsica, Sardinia, and the Balearic Islands made the Mediterranean virtually a Moslem lake. Raids were almost continuous. Rome was attacked (846) and later Monte Cassino.

852-886. Under the combined influence of the disruption of the Carolingian Empire and the pressure of the 9th-century invasions the great fiefs of France began to appear as the only effective centers of local resistance to invasion, and feudalism may be said to have struck root.

Feudalism. Its origins may be traced to the German *comitatus* and the proprietary system of the later Roman Empire. Essentially it was an informal system of contracts for the disposal of land and honorable services, and was in no sense a form of government. Inseparable from it was

the agricultural organization (*manorialism*) which rested on servile tenures and contracts for manual labor and services. Antedating feudalism manorialism was also derived from the Roman proprietary system. The feudal system evolved in each country under local conditions and followed a different development. The feudalism of France is ordinarily regarded as typical.

g THE WEST FRANKS UNDER THE CAROLINGIAN KINGS, 843-987

843-877. **CHARLES THE BALD** (emperor 875-877). His kingdom under the Treaty of Verdun was roughly equivalent to modern France with additions in the north and south and a restricted frontier on the east. Charles was effective master of Laon, but his sway over Neustria was nominal, his control sporadically maintained by war and intrigue. Charles granted three great fiefs as a buffer for his frontiers. The County of Flanders to his son-in-law, Baldwin Iron-Arm (862), Neustria to Robert the Strong as "Duke between Seine and Loire", the French Duchy of Burgundy to Richard, Count of Autun. Brittany (Armorica) was semi-independent under its own dukes and counts in the 9th century and continued so virtually to the end of the Middle Ages. Aquitaine, joined to Neustria for Charles (818), soon emerged as a duchy and was consistently hostile. The Duchy of Gascony was joined to Aquitaine in 1052. From Neustria were carved the Counties of Anjou (870) and Champagne. Septimania remained refractory.

870. **Carloman**, Charles' son, emerged from monastic retirement and led a series of intrigues which ended when he was blinded and died to his uncle, Louis the German. He died in 874. Charles was further weakened by his intrigues in Lorraine and Italy, and by his efforts to win the imperial crown, leaving France open to invasion, anarchy, and brigandage.

The crown, impotent and virtually bankrupt, commanded no respect from magnates or prelates, and the Capitulary of Meerssen (847) shows clear evidence of the progress of essentially feudal ideas: every free man is to choose a lord, none may quit his lord, each must follow his lord in battle. It must be noted that this was purely a military measure. France was already divided into *comtés* under counts theoretically removable by the king.

875. Expedition of Charles to Italy and imperial coronation.

877. The Capitulary of Kiersy made honors hereditary, but lands were still granted only for life.

877-879. **LOUIS II** (*the Stammerer*), son of Charles the Bald, maintained himself with difficulty despite the support of the Church. His sons

879-882 **LOUIS III** and

879-884 **CARLOMAN** divided their heritage, Louis taking Neustria, Carloman Aquitaine, Septimania, and Burgundy, and reduced their rivals to impotence. Louis' victory over the Northmen (Saucourt, 881) did not stop their raids.

884-887. **CHARLES THE FAT**, son of Louis the German, already King of the East Franks (879) and emperor (881-887), was chosen King of the West Franks instead of Charles the Simple, the five-year-old brother of Louis and Carloman. Charles the Fat, having failed (886) to aid the gallant Odo (Eudes) against the Northmen, was deposed (887).

888-898. **Odo** (Eudes), Count of Paris, Marquis of Neustria (son of Count Robert the Strong, whence the name *Robertians* for the line before Hugh Capet) was elected King of the West Franks by one faction of magnates to avoid a minority on the deposition (887) of Charles the Fat. Another faction chose Charles III, the Simple, son of Louis II (Carolingian). Despite five years of civil war

893-923. **CHARLES III** ruled from Laon, the last Carolingian with any real authority in France. Charles, unable to expel the Northmen from the mouth of the Seine, granted (911) Rollo (Hrolf the Ganger, d. 931), a large part of what was later Normandy, for which Rollo did homage.

Formation of Normandy. Rollo was baptized (912) under the name Robert, acquired middle Normandy (the Bessin, 924) and the western part of the duchy (Cotentin and Avranches, 933). The colony was recruited with fresh settlers from Scandinavia for the best part of a century, and was able to retain a strong local individuality. Yet soon after 1000 the duchy was French in both speech and law. Between this period and the accession of Duke William I (the Conqueror) Norman history is fragmentary.

923-987. The French kingship Robert, Count of Paris, Duke between the Seine and Loire, won the West Frankish crown with the aid of his sons-in-law, Herbert, Count of Vermandois, and Rudolf, Duke of Burgundy, but was killed (923) leaving a son (later Hugh the Great) too young to rule.

929-936. **RUDOLF** followed Robert as the foe of Charles the Simple, and ruled with no opposition after Charles' death. Hugh the Great, master of Burgundy and Neustria, declined the crown,

preferring to rule through the young Carolingian heir,

936-954. **LOUIS IV**, a son of Charles the Simple. Hugh's title, *Duke of the French*, seems to have implied governmental functions as much as territorial sovereignty, and he held most of the northern barons under his suzerainty.

954-986. **LOTHAIR** succeeded his father Louis IV. On the death of Hugh the Great, his son Hugh, known as *Capet*, succeeded him (956).

978. Lothair's effort to gain Lorraine led to an invasion by Emperor Otto II to the walls of Paris. Hugh Capet, in alliance with Emperor Otto III, and aided by Gerbert of Reims, reduced Lothair's rule at Laon to a nullity. Lothair's son

986-987. **LOUIS V** was the last Carolingian ruler of France.

987. **ELECTION OF HUGH CAPET**, engineered by Adalbero, Bishop of Reims, and by Gerbert. Hugh was crowned at Noyon with the support of the Duke of Normandy and the Count of Anjou. His title was recognized by the Emperor Otto III in exchange for Hugh's claims to Lorraine. The emergence of the new house of Capet was not the victory of a race, a nationality, or a principle, but the triumph of a family, already distinguished, over a decadent rival. (*Cont. p. 225.*)

h GERMANY UNDER THE CAROLINGIAN AND SAXON EMPERORS, 843-1024

843-876. **LOUIS THE GERMAN**. Increasing Slavic and Norse pressure (general Norse attack, 845, on Carolingian lands). Louis had three sons: Carloman (d. 880), Louis (d. 833), and Charles the Fat. Carloman was assigned Bavaria and the East Mark, Louis Saxony and Franconia, Charles Alamania. Contest with Charles the Bald for Lorraine. By the Treaty of Meerssen (870) Louis added a strip of land west of the Rhine.

876-887. **CHARLES THE FAT**. He blocked Charles the Bald's advance toward the Rhine. Emergence of the Kingdom of Cisjuran Burgundy (i.e. Dauphiné, Provence, part of Languedoc) under Boso (879). Expedition to Italy and coronation by John VIII (881). Negotiations (882) with the Northmen, now permanently established in Flanders. While Charles was in Italy settling a papal election, a great Norse invasion burst on France (Odo's defense of Paris, 886). Deposition of Charles by the Franconian, Saxon, Bavarian, Thuringian, and Swabian magnates at Tribur (887).

887 (896)-899 ARNULF (illegitimate son of Carloman grandson of Louis the German). A certain supremacy was conceded to Arnulf by the various rulers of Germany and Italy who rendered a kind of homage to him. Victory over the Norse on the Dyle (Löwen, 891), resistance to the Slavic (Moravian) advance (893), with Magyar and Magyar raids after 900 Arnulf dared not leave Germany to answer the appeal of Pope Stephen V (885-891) for aid. His illegitimate son Zwentibold was sent on the call of Pope Formosus (891-896), but accomplished nothing (893). Arnulf went to Italy in person (894), was crowned king and received an oath from most of the magnates. On another appeal from Formosus (895) he took Rome and was crowned emperor (896).

900-911. LOUIS THE CHILD (born 893), last of the Carolingians, elected king by the magnates at Forchheim (900). Increasing Norse, Slavic, and Magyar pressure and devastation.

The weakening of the royal power as the East Frankish Kingdom of the Carolingians declined, and the survival of tribal consciousness, left the way open for the emergence of the Stem (German *Stamm*, a tribe) duchies. These duchies preserved the traditions or ancient tribal culture, and their independent development under semi-royal dukes (beginning in the 9th century) ensured the disruption of German unity for a thousand years. These Stem duchies were: Franconia (the Conradines ultimately drove the Babenbergers into the East Mark, later Austria), Lorraine (not strictly a stem duchy but with a tradition of unity), Swabia (the early ducal history is obscure), Bavaria (under the Arnulfings, repulse of the Magyars, acquisition of the Mark of Carinthia), Saxony (under the Ludolfingers; repulse of the Danes and Wends, addition of Thuringia), the Frisians (no tribal duke appeared).

911. End of the East Frankish line of the Carolingians, with the death of Louis the Child (899-911), the German magnates, to avoid accepting a ruler of the West Frankish (French) line, elected Conrad, Duke of Franconia.

911-918. CONRAD I Magyar raids and ducal rebellions in Saxony, Bavaria, and Swabia met vigorous but futile resistance from Conrad. Lorraine passed (911) temporarily under the suzerainty of the West Frankish ruler, Charles the Simple. Conrad nominated his strongest foe, Henry, Duke of Saxony, as his successor, and he was elected.

919-1024 THE SAXON (OR OTTONIAN) HOUSE.

919-936 KING HENRY I (called the Fowler, supposedly because the messengers announcing his election found him hawking). Tolerant of the dukes, he forced recognition of his authority, cool to the Church, he avoided ecclesiastical coronation.

920-921. Reduction of the Duke of Bavaria, alliance with Charles the Simple.

923-925. Lorraine restored to the German Kingdom and united into the Duchy of Lorraine, a center of spiritual and intellectual ferment. Henry's daughter married the Duke of Lorraine (928).

924-933. Truce (and tribute) with the Magyars, fortification of the Elbe and Weser Valleys (Saxony and Thuringia), palisading of towns, villas, monasteries, etc., establishment of *Burgwards*, i.e. garrisons (which later often became towns, like Naumburg, Quedlinburg), where one-ninth of the Saxon electives were on duty and trained as horsemen each year.

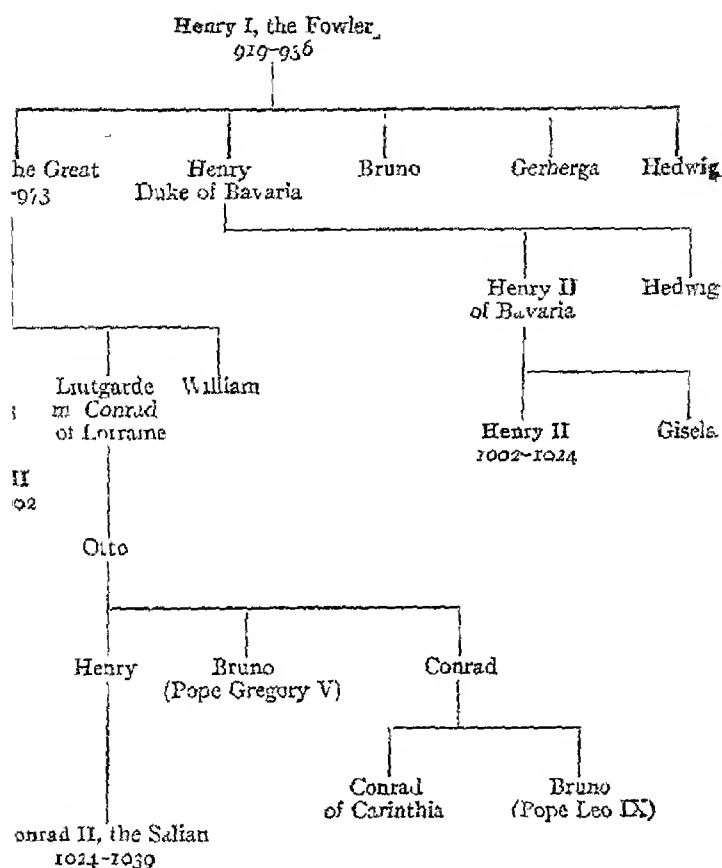
926. Saxon expedition across the frozen Havel River against the Wends: Branibor (Brandenburg) stormed; the Wends driven up the Elbe; creation of the Marks of Branibor, Meissen, and (later) Lusatia as guardians of the middle Elbe.

933. Henry ended the Magyar truce with his victory at Rade on the Unstrut River, the first great defeat of the Magyars. Occupation of the land between the Schlei and the Eider (Charlemagne's Dane Mark), and erection of the Mark of Schleswig, guardian of the Elbe mouth; the Danish king was made tributary and forced to receive Christian missionaries. Henry had prepared the way for his son whose election was a formality, the succession becoming virtually hereditary.

936-973. KING OTTO I (the Great). Otto revived the policy of Arnulf, was crowned and anointed at Aachen, Charlemagne's capital, his coronation banquet revived the Carolingian coronation banquet (of Roman origin) at which the Duke of Franconia served ceremonially as steward, the Duke of Swabia as cup-bearer, the Duke of Lorraine as chamberlain, and the Duke of Bavaria as marshal.

Otto's vigorous assertion of royal authority (a three-year war reduced the Dukes of Bavaria, Franconia, Lorraine, and Saxony). He followed the policy of keeping the great duchies (except Saxony) in his own hands or those of his family. Taking Conrad, the boy King of Arles (Provence and Burgundy), under his protection (937), Otto forced the recognition of his overlord.

The Saxon Emperors



lugh of Provence), Conrad, married Lothar, one of the crown of Italy, and the Bavarians defeated him, but Otto conquered Slav of Bohemia and under the suzerainty of

first expedition to Italy to pass through the mountain to Adelfand and as crown of Italy, the pope and coronation. Berengar to vassalage, ceded the Friuli, Istria (the keys to Otto's brother Henry, Duke of Carinthia). Otto's son (Ludolf, Duke of Carinthia) his son-in-law Conrad

(Duke of Lorraine), and others (suppressed, 955)

955. BATTLE OF THE LECHFELD.

Otto, with an army recruited from all the duchies, ended the Magyar menace by a great victory. Defeat of the Wends on the river Recknitz. Re-establishment and colonization with Bavarians of Charlemagne's East Mark (Austria)

968. The bishoprics established among the Slavs (e.g. Brandenburg, Merseburg, Meissen, Zeitz) were consolidated under the new Archbishopric of Magdeburg. German bishoprics were everywhere filled with bishops loyal to the monarchy, marking the alliance of the king and the Church against feudal opposition.

961-964. Otto's second expedition to Italy on the appeal of Pope John XII

for p o c t o n Assu p t o n o the c o w n
o Italy at Pavia

962. IMPERIAL CORONATION BY THE POPE REVIVAL OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE WEST. Otto put a temporary end to feudal anarchy in Rome, deposed one pope and nominated another, and compelled the pope to recognize the emperor's right to approve or reject papal elections

966-972 Otto's third expedition to Italy: deposition of one pope, restoration of another, nomination of a new pope, punishment of the Romans. Imperial coronation (907) of the future Otto II and assertion of suzerainty over Capua and Benevento (907). Betrothal of Theophano (daughter of the Greek emperor, Romanus II) to the future Otto II (909). coronation of Theophano (972) and marriage to Otto (supposedly bringing Greek Italy as her portion)

Otto, with the able assistance of his brother Bruno, Archbishop of Cologne, began a cultural revival (the so-called *Ottoman Renaissance*) in the manner of Charlemagne, late in life, he learned to read, but not to speak, Latin; Bruno knew Greek. The cosmopolitan court literary circle included Irish and English monks, and learned Greeks and Italians, notably Luitprand of Cremona (*Historia Ottonis*, *Legatio Constantinopolitana*). Great literary activity of the monasteries: Widukind of Corvey (*Res Gestae Saxonicae*), Roswitha, the nun of Gandersheim, author of the *Carmen de gestis Ottonis* and of learned Latin comedies in a bowdlerized Terentian style, celebrating saintly virginity, the vernacular *Heland* (9th century), a Christian epic, Ekkehard or St. Gall's *Waltharius*, inspired by German legends

The German rulers and nobles of the 9th century had regarded the monasteries as their personal property and prepared the way for a strong clerical reaction toward reform supported by the regular clergy (e.g. Cluny), opposed by the seculars who were rapidly passing under feudal influences

973-983 OTTO II. The revolt of Henry the Wrangler, Duke of Bavaria, in alliance with Boleslav of Bohemia, and others, required five years to put down, Henry was banished (978). Repulse of a Danish incursion.

978. Lothar, King of the West Franks, invaded Lorraine and was forced to abandon his claims by Otto's invasion of France (980)

981-982. Otto's campaign in southern Italy,

to expel the Saracens and reduce the Byzantine power, ended in defeat

983-1002. OTTO III (an infant of three years). Rule of his brilliant mother Theophano (983-991), his grandmother Adelheid, and Archbishop Willigis of Mainz (991-996). Under Theophano's influence his education was in the Byzantine tradition, his tutor Gerbert of Aurillac, one of the most learned men of his day, whose brilliance won him the nickname *Plutor Munda*. Henry the Wrangler proclaimed himself king, but was forced to submit

996. Otto's first expedition to Italy ended. Crescentius II's sway in Rome, Otto designated his cousin Bruno as pope (Gregory VI)

998. Returning to Rome on his second expedition to Italy, Otto deposed the Crescentine pope, John XVI, and deposed Crescentius. Otto made Gerbert of Aurillac pope, as Sylvester II. Sylvester shared Otto's devotion to the Carolingian tradition of an intimate union and cooperation of pope and emperor. Otto's romantic antiquarianism led him to a plan of reform through universal imperial overlordship independent of the German crown. He settled down at Rome and began a theatrical restoration of the splendors of the city palace on the Aventine. Byzantine court and Byzantine titles, futile revival of ancient formulas (seals inscribed *Renovatio imperii romani*, etc.), rapid alienation of the Roman populace. He left no heir and was buried by his own orders beside Charlemagne at Aachen

1002-1024. HENRY II (son of Henry the Wrangler, cousin of Otto, great-grandson of Henry the Fowler) emerged from the contest for the throne, and was crowned emperor at Rome (1014). Devout (canonized with his wife, St. Kunigunde), but a political realist and firm with the Church, he concentrated his attention on Germany. Against episcopal objections he founded (1007) the great Bishopric of Hamburg, endowed it richly as an outpost of German culture against Slavdom; the cathedral, one of the glories of German architecture, contains his tomb. Vigorous (Caroline) monastic reform with many confiscations

1002 Successful revolt of Arduin in Lombardy (reduced temporarily in 1004, and finally in 1014).

1003-1017 A long, unsuccessful struggle with Boleslav Chrobry (992-1015) of Poland, Duke of Bohemia, who had acquired Lusatia and Silesia

1006-1007. Unrest in Burgundy and revolt of Baldwin of Flanders (suppressed, 1007)

In practice Henry had no choice but to allow the great fiefs to become hereditary. He relied heavily on the clergy to supply advisers and administrators and looked to the Church also for military and financial support, but he dominated the Church in Germany through his control of the episcopal appointments. Extensive secularization and reform of the monasteries of the Church resulted (Cont p 205)

1. SPAIN

(1) *The Visigothic Kingdom, 466-711*

In the time of Euric (466-484) the Visigothic rule extended from the Loire to Gibraltar and from the Bay of Biscay to the Rhone. The capital was Toulouse.

507. Clovis' victory in the battle of Vouillé obliged the Visigoths to withdraw over the Pyrenees, retaining only Septimania north of the mountains. The new capital was Toledo.

The Visigoths in Spain were a small minority (about one in five) and were rapidly romanized (e.g. the *Breviary of Alaric*). The conversion of King Reccared (587) from Arianism to Roman orthodoxy brought an end to their religious separateness, accelerated the process of romanization and initiated the domination of the clergy over the monarchy. The Synod of Toledo (633) assumed the right to confirm elections to the crown. After 600 the Jews were forced to accept baptism, for which reason they later on welcomed the Moslem invasion. Visigothic speech gradually disappeared and the current vernacular was of Latin origin. Roman organization and tradition survived to a marked degree. Isidore of Seville (c. 560-636), a bishop, theologian, historian, man of letters, and scientist, produced in his *Etymologiae* a general reference work which remained a standard manual for 500 years and served as a medium for the transmission of much ancient knowledge to the medieval world.

(2) *Moslem Spain, 711-1031*

711-715. THE MOSLEM CONQUEST.

In 711 a mixed force of Arabs and Berbers, led by the Berber Tariq (whence Gibraltar — *Gebel al-Tariq*) crossed from Africa. Roderick, the last Visigothic king, was completely defeated in the battle on the Guadalete (Rio Barbate), whereupon his kingdom collapsed. The Moslems took Cordova and the capital, Toledo. Tariq was followed (712) by his master, Musa, who took Medina Sidonia, Seville, Merida, and Saragossa. The Moslems soon reached

the Pyrenees (719), having driven the remnants of the Christians into the mountains of the north and west.

732. In the battle of Tours the Moslems, having crossed into France, were decisively defeated by Charles Martel and the Franks. By 759 they had been entirely expelled from France.

756-1031. THE OMAYYAD DYNASTY OF CORDOVA.

756-788. Abdurrahman, emir. He was the grandson of the Omayyad Caliph of Damascus, and was the founder of the Moorish state in Spain. Christians were given toleration in return for payment of a poll tax. The Jews were very well treated. But Abdurrahman met with vigorous opposition from the Arab nobility, which was supported from abroad by Pepin and Charlemagne.

777. Invasion of Spain by Charlemagne, checked by the heroic defense of Saragossa. Annihilation of his rear-guard by Basques at Roncesvalles (778 — *Song of Roland*). Wars with the Franks continued throughout the rest of the century, Charlemagne ultimately conquering northeastern Spain as far as the Ebro River (capture of Barcelona, 801).

788-796. Hisham, son of Abdurrahman, emir, during whose reign Malikiite doctrines were introduced in Spain.

796-822. Hakam, son of Hisham, emir. Revolts in Cordova (805, 817) and Toledo (814). The Cordovan rebels, expelled from Spain, went to Alexandria and thence to Crete, which they reconquered.

822-852. Abdurrahman II, son of Hakam.

During his reign Alfonso II of Leon invaded Aragon. He was defeated and his kingdom destroyed. The Franks too were driven back in Catalonia. The Normans first appeared on the coasts. In 837 a revolt of Christians and Jews in Toledo was suppressed, but Christian fanatics continued to be active, especially in Cordova.

852-886. Mohammed I. He put down another Christian uprising in Cordova, and carried on extensive operations against the Christian states of Leon, Galicia and Navarre (Pampeluna taken 861).

886-888. Mundhir.

888-912. Abdullah, brother of Mundhir.

912-961. ABDURRAHMAN III. The ablest and most gifted of the Omayyads of Spain, who assumed the titles of *Caliph* and *Amir al-Mu'minin* in 929, thus asserting supremacy in Islam as against the Abbasid Caliphs of Bagdad. Abdurrahman's reign was marked by the pacification

of the country by competition of government also organization (centralization), by naval activity, by agricultural advance and by industrial progress. Cordova (population c. 500,000) became the greatest intellectual center of Europe, with a huge paper trade, great libraries, and pre-eminent schools (medicine, mathematics, philosophy, poetry, music, much translation from Greek and Latin).

The height of Moslem learning was reached by Averroes (Ibn Rushd, c. 1126-1198), philosopher, physician and commentator on Plato and Aristotle, master of the Christian schoolmen.

The aristocracy, by this time almost extinguished, was replaced by a rich middle class and feudal soldiery. The Christians and Jews continued to enjoy wide toleration.

Abdurrahman continued the wars with Leon and Navarre, which extended over most of his long reign. By the Peace of 955 with Ordonio III of Leon, the independence of Leon and Navarre was recognized and the Moslem frontier withdrawn to the Ebro, on the other hand, Leon and Navarre recognized the suzerainty of the caliph and paid tribute. This peace was soon broken by Ordonio's brother Sancho (957) who, after his defeat, was expelled by his subjects but restored by the caliph (959).

961-976. Hakam II. He continued the wars against Castile, Leon and Navarre and forced their rulers to sue for peace (962-970). At the same time he waged successful war against the Fatimid dynasty in Morocco, which was brought to an end (973) and replaced by the Omayyad power.

976-1009. Hisham II, whose reign marked the decline of the Omayyad dynasty. Power was seized by Mohammed ibn Abi 'Amur, with the title of *Hajib al-Mansur* (European: *Alamansor* = the Victorious Chamberlain), a brilliant reforming minister (army and administration). He carried on successful campaigns against Leon, Navarre, Catalonia, and Mauretania, and temporarily checked the religious and racial separatism which later on brought about the collapse of the Omayyad Caliphate. On his death in 1002 he was succeeded by his son, Abdulmalik al-Muza'ffar (the Victorious), who several times defeated the Christians, and was followed by his brother, Abdurrahman, named Sanchol. The latter obliged Hisham to proclaim him his heir, whereupon a revolt took place in Cordova under the leadership of Mohammed, a member of the royal family. Hisham was compelled to abdicate in favor of Mohammed, and Sanchol was executed. In the meanwhile the Berbers nominated Sulayman as caliph. Civil

war ensued, reducing Spain to more than a score of petty kingdoms (*taifas*) and making easier the Christian reconquest.

1027-1031. Hisham III, the last Omayyad caliph.

(3) Christian Spain

CASTILE AND LEON, 718-1065

718-737. Pelayo, successor to Roderick the Visigoth, created the Kingdom of the Asturias, a theocratic elective monarchy in the Visigothic tradition. Beginning of the reciprocal alliance of kings and clergy under

739-757. Alfonso I, who assigned to the Church a generous share of the lands conquered from the Moslems and used the clergy as a counterweight to the aristocracy.

899. Miraculous discovery of the bones of St. James the Greater and erection of the first church of Santiago de Compostella, which became the center of the Spanish national cult and one of the most influential shrines in Europe.

910-914. Garcia, king of Leon, began a rapid expansion of his domain to the east (construction of numerous castles, hence the name *Castile*).

c. 930-970. Count Fernán González, Count of Burgos (later Castile), marked the rise of the Counts of Burgos. By intrigue and alliance with the Moslems he expanded his domains at the expense of Leon, and made the country or Castile autonomous and hereditary. His progress was arrested by Sancho the Fat of Leon (d. 966), who was in alliance with Abdurrahman III.

970-1035. Sancho the Great of Navarre effected a close union of Castile and Navarre and began the conquest of Leon.

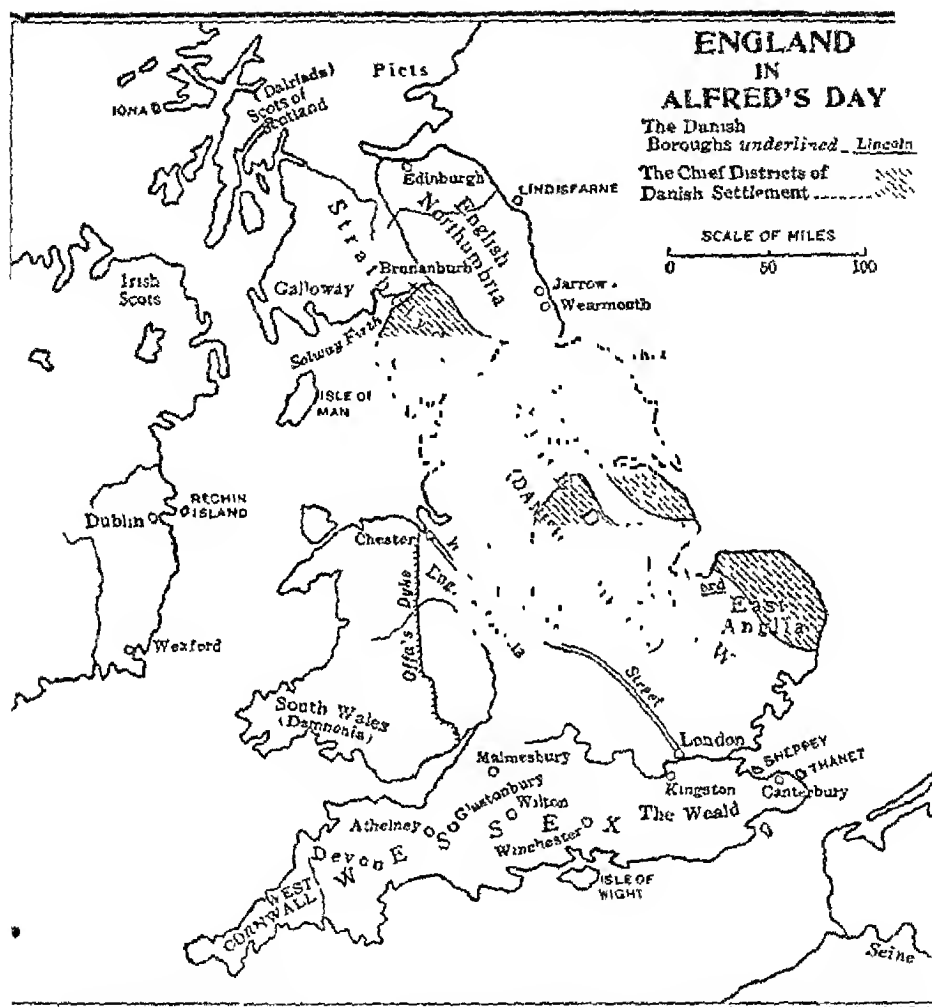
1035-1065. Ferdinand I, of Castile, completed the work by conquering Leon (1037) and assuming the title of *King of Leon*. (Cont. p. 233)

j. THE BRITISH ISLES

(1) England to 1066

Prehistoric Britain. The prehistoric inhabitants of Britain (called *Celts* on the basis of language) were apparently a fusion of Mediterranean, Alpine, and Nordic strains which included a dark Iberian and a light-haired stock. Archaeological evidence points to contacts with the Iberian Peninsula (2500 B.C.) and Egypt (1300 B.C.).

1200-600 B.C. The true Celts are represented by two stocks: Goidels (*Gaels*), surviving in northern Ireland and



high Scotland, and Cymri and Brythons (*Brutons*) still represented in Wales. The Brythons were close kin to the Gauls, particularly the Belgii. Their religion was dominated by a powerful, organized, priestly caste, the Druids of Gaul and Britain, who monopolized religion, education, and justice.

57 B.C. - 450 A.D. ROMAN OCCUPATION began with Julius Caesar's conquests in Gaul and Britain (57-50 B.C.), Emperor Claudius' personal expedition and conquest (43 A.D.) were decisive in the romanization of Britain. Reduction of the "empire" (5-40 A.D.) of Cymbeline and suppression (61) of the national revolt of Boudicca (*Boadicea*). Conquest of Wales (48-79). Construction of the great network of Roman roads began (eventually 5 systems, 4 centering on London). Bath emerged as a center of Romano-British fashion.

75-142. Roman conquests in the north began under Agricola, results north of the Clyde-Forth line were not decisive. The Emperor Hadrian completed the conquest of Britain in person: construction of Hadrian's Wall (123) from Solway Firth to Tyne mouth. Firth-Clyde rampart (c. 142).

208. Emperor Septimius Severus arrived (208), invaded Caledonia (Scotland), restored Roman military supremacy in the north, and fixed Hadrian's Wall as the final frontier of Roman conquest.

300-350. Height of villa construction in the plain of Britain. Chief towns: Verulamium (St. Albans), Colchester, Lincoln, Gloucester, York. The skill of the artisans and cloth-workers of Britain was already famous on the Continent in the 4th century. The island south of the Wall was completely romanized.

c. 350. Pirate raids of Irish (*Scoti*) and Picts were common, and the Teutonic conquest of Gaul cut Britain off from Rome in the 5th century, leaving the Romano-British to defend themselves against Saxon attacks on the south and east which soon penetrated the lowlands.

410-442. Withdrawal of the Roman legions and the end of the Roman administration coincided with an intensification of Nordic pressure and the influx of Jutes, Angles, and Saxons, which permanently altered the racial base of the island. By c. 615 the Angles and Jutes had reached the Irish Channel and were masters of what is virtually modern England. A Celtic recrudescence appeared in the highlands of the west and northwest. The history of Britain for two centuries (c. 350-597) is

obscure. Christianity had not made much progress under the Romans.

Seven Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, the *Heptarchy*, emerged after the Teutonic conquest: Essex, Wessex, Sussex (probably prevalently Saxon as the names suggest); Kent (Jutes); East Anglia, Mercia, Northumbria (Angles).

560-616. The supremacy of Ethelbert of Kent in the Heptarchy coincided with the

597. Arrival of Augustine the Monk and the conversion of Kent to the Roman Church. The hegemony in the Heptarchy passed eventually to Edwin of Northumbria (which had also been converted).

633. The defeat and death of Ethelbert's brother-in-law Edwin at the hands of the heathen Mercians ended the Northumbrian primacy and temporarily overwhelmed the Roman Church. A period of anarchy ensued.

633. Oswald of Northumbria called Aidan from Iona, whose mission began the great influence of Celtic Christianity, which for a time threatened to replace the Roman Church.

664. The Synod of Whitby turned Britain back into the orbit of the Roman Church and the Continent, and prepared the way for the decisive role of

669-690. Theodore of Tarsus, Archbishop of Canterbury. Theodore introduced a strictly Roman parochial system and a centralized episcopal system which became the model for the secular state and created a new concept of kingship. National synods brought the rival kingdoms together for the first time, and began the long evolution destined to create English nationality and national institutions, and to spread them through the civilized world.

Theodore's episcopate was marked by the reintroduction of Greco-Roman culture and the permanent establishment of a new cultural tradition which produced Bede (673-735), the father of English literature, and culminated in the wide influence of the great School at York, which extended to the Continent (e.g. Alcuin at the court of Charlemagne). The Archbishopric of York was founded, 735. Romance ecclesiastical architecture and church music flourished.

757-796. Under Offa II the Kingdom of Mercia, supreme south of the Humber reached its maximum power, after which it broke up.

787. The first recorded raid of the Danes in England was followed by the

Danish inundation of Ireland. In the pause before the great wave of Viking advance, Wessex under

802-839. Egbert, who had been in Charlemagne's service, emerged supreme (conquering Mercia), exercised a vague suzerainty over Northumbria, and received the homage of all the English kinglets.

856-875 Full tide of the first Viking assault. Wessex was the spearhead of resistance.

871-899 **ALFRED THE GREAT** purchased peace until he could organize his forces and build up a navy. Almost overwhelmed by the winter invasion of 878, he finally defeated the Danes and forced the Peace of Wedmore, whereby Guthrun the Dane became a Christian and divided England with Alfred. The *Danish*, north of the Thames-Lea line, went to Guthrun, the south, together with London, went to Alfred.

878-900. The Danes were masters of the northeast, and under Danish pressure Scotland began to take on shape and unity.

Alfred proceeded to organize the defense of his kingdom. London was walled and garrisoned with burghers charged with its defense. Earth forts (*burhs*) of the Viking type were thrown up and garrisoned. The fyrd and the fleet were reorganized; the army increased, the *thegns* began to be used as a mounted infantry. Henceforth all citizens of the requisite wealth were forced to thegnhood, i.e. to join the military class attached to the royal household. A Danish reaction (892-896) was firmly put down.

Alfred's patronage of learning. Foreign scholars and learned refugees were welcomed at court. Alfred translated Bede's *History*, Orosius, and Boethius' *Consolation* into the vernacular. To provide trained administrators, Alfred established schools for the sons of thegns and nobles. The Anglo-Saxon *Chronicle* was started.

899-924. Edward, Alfred's son, succeeded him, and with his sister, Ethelfreda of Mercia, began the conquest of the Danelaw, which was completed under

924-939 Ethelstan, Edward's son. The sons of Alfred were the first true kings of England, his grandson Edgar (959-975) was recognized as such. Archbishop Dunstan, Edgar's chief counselor, was a great ecclesiastical reformer (sumony and morals) of the Church and the people. He followed a policy of fusion and conciliation toward the Danes, and Oda, a full-blooded Dane, became (942) Archbishop of Canter-

bury. The absorption of the Danelaw by Wessex left the Celtic fringe in Scotland and Wales independent under a vague kind of vassalage to the king.

As the Danelaw was absorbed, the shire system was extended to it with the old Danish boroughs as a nucleus. The administration was often in the hands of men of Danish blood. The Anglo-Saxon farmers had no love for war and the thegns began to emerge as a professional soldier class. The old tribal and clan organization was superseded by a system of quasi-feudal form whereby each man had a lord who was responsible for him at law. The great earldoms were beginning to emerge.

No common law existed, shire and hundred courts administered local custom with the freeman suitors under the king's representative-ealdorman, shire-reeve, or hundred-reeve. From the days of Edgar, the feudal element tended to encroach on royal authority, especially in the hundred courts. The old monasticism had been destroyed by the invasions, and the Church in England fell into corruption and decadence, only reformed by the influence of Cluny and Fleury and the Norman Conquest.

991. An ebb in Viking raids was followed by a fresh onset during the reign of Ethelred the Redeless (978-1016), led by Sven I (*Forked Beard*), King of Denmark. *Danegeld* had been sporadically collected under Alfred, now it was regularly levied and used as tribute to buy off the invaders. This tax, and the invasions, led to a rapid decline of the freeholders to a servile status. Under Canute, the *Danegeld* was transformed into a regular tax for defense. Collection of the *Danegeld*, originally in the hands of the towns, fell increasingly to the lord of the manor, and it was only a step from holding him for the tax to making him lord of the land from which the tax came.

1013-1014 Sven I (d. 1014) was acknowledged by the English, and Ethelred fled to Normandy, the home of his second wife, Emma.

1017-1035. King Canute, one of the two sons of Sven, elected by the Witan. The Witan was a heterogeneous body of prelates, magnates, and officials without any precise constitutional status. Canute was "emperor," on the model of Charlemagne, over a northern empire which included Denmark, Norway, and England and, but for his early death, might have played a more important rôle. His reign was marked by conciliation and fusion. The Church was under Anglo-Saxon clergy. Canute maintained a good navy, and his

standing army included the famous *Jomca* 1s which soon had an Anglo-Saxon contingent. The four great earldoms, Wessex, East Angles, Mercia, Northumbria, and seven lesser earldoms can be distinguished in this period. The greatest of the earls was Godwin of Wessex. Canute's sons were incompetent, and his line ended, 1042.

Godwin was chiefly responsible for the election of the successor to Canute's line, Edward, son of Emma and Ethelred, who married (1045) Godwin's daughter.

1042-1066. EDWARD THE CONFESSOR, of the line of Alfred, was under Godwin's domination. Brought up at the Norman court, speaking French, he tried to Normanize the English court. Godwin's influence led to the deposition of the Norman Archbishop of Canterbury and the selection of the Saxon Stigand by the Witan. As Stigand had supported an anti-pope, Alexander II favored the Normans as did Hildebrand, the power behind the papal throne. Godwin's son, Harold, succeeded (1053) him as Earl of Wessex, and dominated Edward as his father had. Another son of Godwin, Tostig, became Earl of Northumbria. Harold (c. 1004) was driven ashore on the Channel, fell into the hands of William, Duke of Normandy, a cousin of Edward the Confessor, and was forced to take an oath to aid William to attain the crown of England, which William declared Edward had promised him.

1066. Tostig, exiled after the Northumbrian revolt (1005), returned with Harold Hadrada to attack Northumbria. The Confessor died in January (1066) and William at once began vigorous preparations for the conquest of England.

1066. On Edward's death Harold was chosen king by the Witan and was guarding the coasts of England against William when Tostig and Hadrada appeared in the north. After a brilliant dash northward, Harold defeated them at Stamford Bridge in September, at the very moment that the Norman invaders arrived in the Channel. Rushing southward after his victory, Harold confronted the Normans, who had already landed, with a reduced, wearied, and shaken force, and was beaten and killed in the

OCT. 14. Battle of Hastings, or Senlac
(*Cont p 191.*)

(2) Scotland to 1034

Racial origins obscure. A wave of Neolithic peoples from the Mediterranean was followed by Celts, Goidels, Brythons, Saxons in the 6th century B.C., and then by

Picts. The Romans arrived at the end of the first century, A.D., but made no permanent impression.

450-600. Four political nuclei, Picts (Pentland Firth to the central plain), Dalriada (Argyllshire and the islands of Jura and Islay), "Welsh" refugees in Strathclyde, Ida of Bernicia's realm (from the Tweed to the Firth of Forth).

c. 565. COLUMBA arrived from Iona and converted the King of the Picts to the Celtic Church giving Scotland her first cultural contact with the civilized world.

664. The Synod of Whithby turned England to the Roman Church and temporarily isolated Scotland. The Picts ultimately went into the Roman communion (c. 700) and Iona itself followed (710).

685. The English power was broken on the southern frontier, and Scotland began her independent evolution. Under Kenneth I (d. 858) began the first Scottish union.

794. Arrival of the Norse. Iona burned (802), a series of devastations followed.

921. Edward, son of Alfred the Great, was acknowledged lord of Scotland. Ethelstan enforced the bond in arms (934) and a Scottish effort to revolt was crushed (937).

1005-1034. Under Malcolm II, Lothian was added to the Scottish crown and Strathclyde completed (1034) the union of the four nuclei under

1034-1040. Duncan, but without a homogeneous racial or political basis. The Isles and the north were under Scandinavian dominance, and England aimed to make Scotland her vassal. (*Cont p 201.*)

(3) Ireland to 1171

Racial origins. The Neolithic inhabitants, followed by Celts and Goidels (c. 600-500 B.C.). The "tribes" (i.e. Ulster, Leinster, Connaught, East and West Munster) may date from the Goidel arrival. Belgic and other Brythonic migrations (300-150 B.C.) probably in the southeast. Supremacy of the Brythonic Kingdom of Tara in the 4th century of the Christian Era. The Picts pushed into Antrim and Down. There is an enormous body of legend dealing with the early origins.

431. Traditional date for the arrival of Bishop Palladius and his mission.

422. PATRICK, a pupil of Germanus of Auxerre, especially trained for this

mission, arrived to continue Palladius' work. He founded churches in Meath, Ulster, Connaught, and probably established the Bishopric of Armagh. Chieftains were converted, but much paganism survived. Patrick began the education of the priesthood. Patrick's ecclesiastical organization was probably close to that of Britain and Gaul, but with the withdrawal of the Roman legions from the latter countries the Roman connection was cut, and there was a recrudescence of paganism. The diocesan organization of Patrick apparently slipped back into the native system. Chieftains, on their conversion, made donations of land to the Church, and at first the ecclesiastical offices seem to have remained in the hands of the sept, with the *coarb* (inheritor) as bishop or abbot. The cenobitic organization of the 5th century was that of a sept, whose chief was a Christian. Later there was a rigorous form which separated the sexes. As the earlier diocesan organization declined, the number of bishops rose to fantastic figures. There was a great exodus of Irish scholars and monks to Europe during the 8th and 9th centuries.

c. 500-800. The Golden Age of Irish monastic scholarship occurred in the 6th to the 9th centuries. A great school founded by Eudo, Prince of Oriel (c. 450-540), at Aranmore drew scholars from all Europe. Establishment of the monastery of Clonard (c. 520) under Welsh inspiration. Here there were said to be 3000 students living in separate, walled huts under open-air instruction. From Clonard went forth the so-called *Twelve Apostles of Ireland*, founding schools all over Ireland and later the Continent.

c. 533. True monasticism began with the work of Columba. Columba founded Iona (563), the mother Church of Scotland, whence Aidan, the apostle of England, founded Lindisfarne (633) for the conversion of Northumbria. The *Book of Kells* and the flowering of Gaelic vernacular poetry date from this period.

590. Columban of Leinster, from Bangor, began his mission to Europe, founding Luxeuil and a great series of other foundations (e.g. Gall, Wurzburg, Salzburg, Tarantum, Bobbio). The 8th century saw a great wave of missions from the Rhine-Meuse area inland to the Rhone-Alps line. This powerful advance of Celtic Christianity at one time seemed destined to win northern Europe from Rome. The chief formal differences from Rome were in tonsure, the date of Easter, the consecration of bishops. In the 7th century the Irish

Church conformed to Roman usage, but the bond with Rome was not close.

723. Boniface (Wintred) the Anglo-Saxon, arrived on the Continent to begin the organization on Roman lines of the Celtic establishments among the Franks, Thuringians, Alamanni, and Bavarians. Before the coming of the Norse there were no cities, no stone bridges in Ireland, and no foreign trade of importance.

795. The first Norse attack. Dublin (840), Waterford, and Limerick founded as centers of Norse trade with the Continent. Soon a mixed race, the Gallgoideils (whence Galloway) arose, and a Christian decline set in. The Scandinavians remained chiefly in the ports.

1002-1014. Brian of Munster established his supremacy. A period of road- and fort-building. At Clontarf (1014) Brian defeated the Norse, ending the domination of Dublin, though the Norse remained in their cities. Brian fell in the battle and anarchy followed — the struggle of the O'Brians of Munster, the O'Neils of Ulster, the O'Connors of Connaught — which ended in an appeal to King Henry II of England by Dermot (or Dermot) MacMurrough.

1152. The Synod of Kells established the present diocesan system of Ireland, recognized the primacy of Armagh, and the Archbishoprics of Cashel, Tuam, Dublin. Tithes were voted.

1167-1171. The Norman Conquest. Henry II, on his accession, had the idea of conquering Ireland. John of Salisbury records that on his request as Henry's envoy (1155), Pope Adrian IV sent Henry a letter granting him lordship of Ireland, and a ring as the symbol of his investiture. Henry seems never to have availed himself of the papal grant.

1167. On the appeal of Dermot MacMurrough, Henry issued a letter allowing Dermot to raise troops in England for his cause. Dermot came to terms with Richard of Clare, a Norman, Earl of Pembroke, and with other Normans, most of whom were related to one another. A series of expeditions to Ireland brought into the island a group of Norman families (e.g. Fitzmaurices, Carews, Gerards, Davids, Barries, et al.), who began to establish a powerful colony, which alarmed Henry.

1172. HENRY II, with papal sanction landed in Ireland to assert his supremacy and to reconcile the natives. The Synod of Cashel, at which Henry was not present, acknowledged his sovereignty.

(Cont. p. 201.)

k SCANDINAVIA

ORIGINS. References in Ptoleas, Pomponius Mela, Pliny the Elder, Tacitus, Ptolemy, Procopius, Jordanes. Archaeological remains indicate Roman connections in the 3d century after Christ, but there is no evidence for close continental relations until the Viking period.

VIKING PERIOD. Scandinavia developed in isolation during the barbarian migrations until the 2d century after Christ. The Viking expansion from Scandinavia itself prolonged the period of migrations in Europe for four hundred years. The traditional participation of Scandinavia in the Viking migration through Europe was as follows: (1) Norwegians (outer passage) raids in Scotland, Ireland, France (Hrolf the Ganger, i.e. "Rollo"); (2) Danes (the middle passage) British Isles, France, the Low Countries; (3) Swedes (eastward passage) across Slavdom to Byzantium (foundation of Novgorod 862, Kiev, c. 900). There never was a mass migration, and probably all stocks shared in the various movements to some degree. **Causes.** (1) pagan reaction, including renegade Christians; (2) pressure of population; (3) tribal warfare and vassalage of the defeated, especially after 872 (this is the traditional explanation for Rollo's migration, 911); (4) love of gain; (5) fashion and love of adventure.

NORWEGIAN COLONIZATION (1) Ireland: the Norwegian conquest began c. 823 and centers were established at Dublin (the kingdom endured until 1014), Waterford, and Limerick. Exodus of learned monks to Europe (Scotus Eriugena?). Attacks by the Picts and Danes. The subsequent colonization of the Scottish Islands drew Norwegians from Ireland and accelerated the civilization of the colonists who remained there. (2) The Islands, Hebrides, Man, Faroes, Orkney, Shetlands. (3) Iceland: reached by Irish monks c. 790, discovered by the Norsemen in 874 and colonized almost at once, establishment of a New Norway, with a high culture. (4)

Greenland visited by Eric the Red of Iceland (981) and colonized at once, expeditions from Greenland to the North American Continent (p. 365). The Norse settlements in Greenland continued until the 15th century.

CIVILIZATION. Large coin hoards indicate the profits of raids and trade with the British Isles, Mediterranean, Byzantium, and Moslem Asia. Export of furs, arms (to eastern Europe), and mercenary services to rulers (e.g. bodyguards of Ethelred, Canute, Slavic princes, Byzantine emperors). Trade eastward was cut off by the Huns and Avars (5th and 6th century) but resumed after Rurik's expedition (862) reopened Russia.

Runes (from a Scandinavian root, meaning to inscribe) were already ancient in the Viking period, and probably are modified Roman letters. The *Edas*, dramatic lays (prose and verse) of the Norwegian aristocracy (especially in Iceland) dealing with gods and heroes (many in the German tradition, e.g. Sigurd and the Nibelungs) are the highest literary production of heathen Scandinavia.

Scandinavian society rested on wealth from raids and commerce and consisted of a landed aristocracy with farmer tenants with the right and obligation to attend local courts, there were few slaves. The only general assembly was the *Allthing* of Iceland (established 930) the oldest continuous parliamentary body in existence.

Mythology and religion. The Norwegians had a more complicated mythology than any other Teutonic people, giants, elves, dwarfs, serpents, succeeded by the triumph of Odin, his wife Friga, and his son Thor.

Conversion to Christianity. The first Christians (probably captives) appeared in the 6th century. The first Christian missionary was the Anglo-Saxon, Willibrod (c. 700), who accomplished but little. A Carolingian mission (c. 820) was welcomed by King Bjorn of Sweden. A few years later (c. 831) the Archbishopric of Hamburg was established and became at once the center for missionary work in the north.

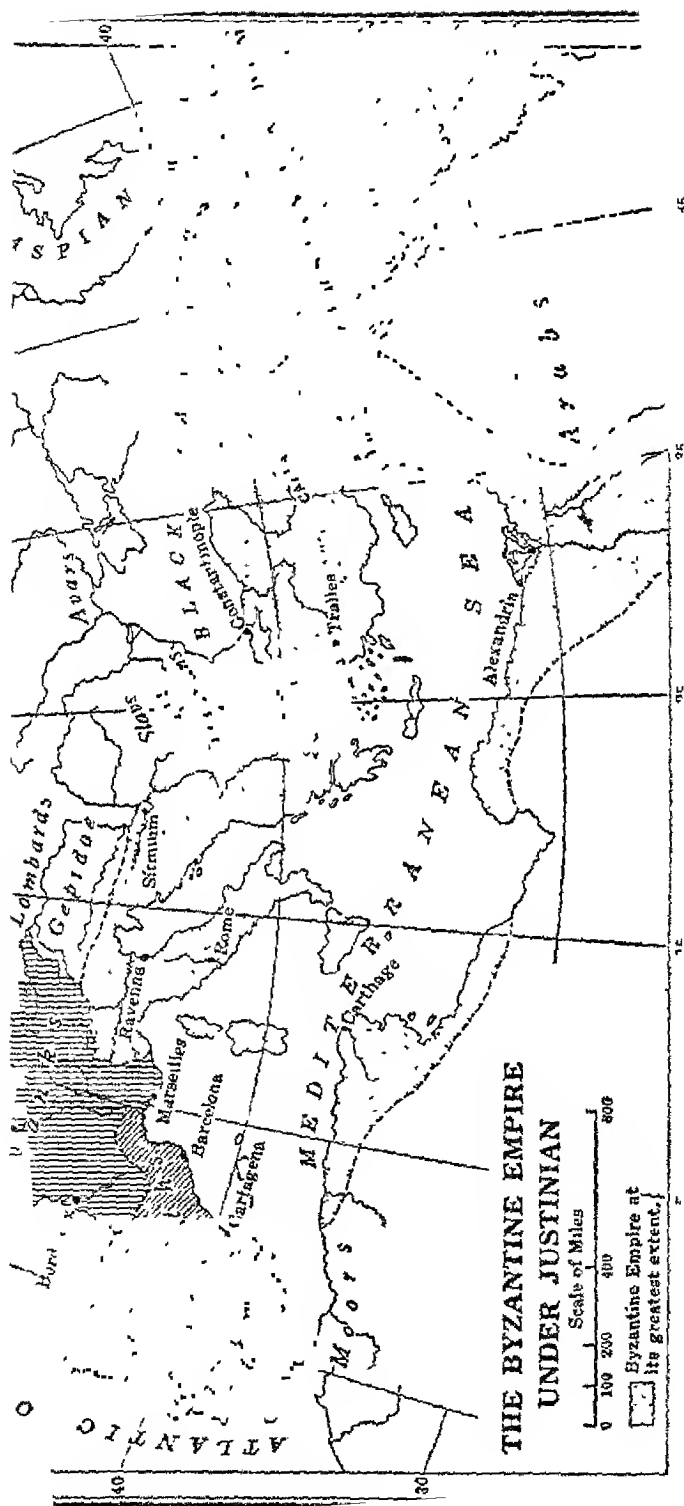
(Cont. p. 203.)

2. EASTERN EUROPE

a. THE EASTERN EMPIRE TO 1025

527-565 JUSTINIAN. A Macedonian by birth and the chief adviser of his uncle, Justin, since 518. Justinian was a man of serious and even somber tempera-

ment, but of strong, even autocratic character, sober judgment, grandiose conceptions. He was strongly influenced by his wife Theodora (d. 548), a woman of humble origin, probably unduly maligning by the historian Procopius. Theodora was cruel, deceitful, and avid of power, but a woman of iron will and unusual political



judgment Justinian's hope was directed toward the establishment of the absolute power of the emperor and toward the revival of a universal Christian Roman Empire. The entire reign was filled with wars in the east and in the west, punctuated by constant incursions of the barbarians from the north.

527-532. The first Persian War of Justinian. His commander, Belisarius, won a victory at Dara (530), but was then defeated at Callinicum. The conflict ended with the Perpetual Peace of 532, designed to free the imperial armies for operations in the west.

532. The Nika Insurrection (so-called from the cry of the popular parties *Nika = Victory*). This was the last great uprising of the circus parties and led to great violence and incendiarism. Much of Constantinople was destroyed by fire. Justinian was deterred from flight only through the arguments of Theodora. Ultimately Belisarius and the forces put down the insurrection with much cruelty (30,000 slain). Therewith the period of popular domination came to an end and the epoch of absolutism began.

533-543. CONQUEST OF NORTH AFRICA. Belisarius, with a relatively small force, transported by sea, defeated the Vandal usurper, Gelimer, and recovered the whole of North Africa for the empire.

535-554. THE RECONQUEST OF ITALY. Belisarius landed in Sicily, overran the island, conquered southern Italy from the Ostrogoths and took Rome (Dec. 9, 536). The Ostrogoth king, Witiges, besieged the city for a whole year (537-538), but failed to take it. In the following year Belisarius advanced to the north, took Ravenna and captured Witiges, but, after the recall of Belisarius, the new Ostrogoth leader, Totila, reconquered Italy as far as Naples (541-543). He took Rome (546) and sacked it. Belisarius returned, captured the city, but then abandoned it to the Goths (549). He was later replaced by Narses, who invaded Italy by land from the north with a large army composed chiefly of barbarian mercenaries. He defeated the Ostrogoths decisively in the battle of Tagina (552) and brought all of Italy under imperial rule.

540. The Huns, Bulgars, and other barbarian tribes crossed the Danube and raided the Balkan area as far south as the Isthmus of Corinth.

540-562. The great Persian War against Khusru I (*Chosroes*). The Persians invaded Syria and took Antioch, after which they attacked Lazistan and Armenia

and raided Mesopotamia. In 544 they besieged Edessa, but in vain. A truce was concluded in 545, but hostilities were soon resumed in the Transcaucasus region. The Persians took Petra (549), but lost it again (551). By the fifty-year Peace of 562, Justinian agreed to pay tribute, but Lazistan was retained for the empire.

542-546. Constantinople and the empire were visited by a very severe and disastrous epidemic of the bubonic plague.

554. The conquest of southeastern Spain by the imperial armies. Cordova became the capital of the province.

559. The Huns and Slavs, having advanced to the very gates of Constantinople, were driven off by Belisarius.

JUSTINIAN AND THE CHURCH. Peace had been made with Rome in 519 and Pope John I had visited Constantinople in 525. Justinian made a great effort to maintain the unity of the western and eastern churches, but this led him into trouble with the Monophysites of Syria and Egypt. He attempted to reconcile them also, but with indifferent success. The cleavage between Latin and Greek Christianity became ever more marked. Justinian suppressed all heresies and paganism (closing of the Neoplatonic Academy at Athens, 529). Extensive missionary work was carried on among the barbarians and in Africa. For the rest the emperor, with a great taste for dogma, set himself up as the master of the Church and arrogated to himself the right to make binding pronouncements in even purely theological matters.

ADMINISTRATION. The emperor insisted on honesty and efficiency. He abolished sale of offices, improved salaries, united the civil and military powers of provincial authorities, etc. In order to hold back the barbarians he built hundreds of forts along the frontiers and established a regular system of frontier forces (*limitanei*). Financially the empire suffered greatly from the extensive military operations and from the great building activities of the court.

LAW REFORM. In order to clarify the law, Justinian appointed a commission headed by the jurist, Tribonian. This commission collected and ordered all the constitutions promulgated since the time of Hadrian and published them as the *Codex Justinianus* (529). There followed the collection of opinions of the jurists, the *Digest* or *Pandects* (533), and a general textbook of the law, the *Institutes*. Justinian's own legislation was collected in the *Novellae* (565). By this great work of codification Justinian assured for the Roman Law an immense prestige and far-reaching influ-

ence, but at the same time diminished its chances of further development.

BUILDING ACTIVITY. The period was one of unexampled construction, ranging from whole towns to public baths, palaces, bridges, roads and forts, as well as countless churches and cloisters. It was a period of much free experimentation and originality, resulting in unusual variety of types, all of them, however, marked by grandeur and splendor. The Church of St. Sophia (constructed between 532-537 by Anthemios of Tralles and Isidoros of Miletus) is the greatest of the many monuments of Justinian's reign.

LITERATURE. An age of revival. The *Secret History* of Procopius, the historians Agathias and John of Ephesus. Renaissance of Greek classical poetry: creation of religious poetry by Romanos.

565-578. JUSTIN II, nephew of Justinian, who seized the throne with the aid of Tiberius, commander of the guard. Justin was a careful, economical ruler, who continued the policies of his predecessor, but attempted to concentrate attention upon the economic plight of the empire and the growing danger from the barbarians. In 574 he became insane, after which the empire was ruled by Tiberius, in conjunction with the Empress Sophia.

568-571. The Lombard invasion of Italy led to the loss of most of the imperial possessions in the north and center, though Ravenna, Rome, and Naples were retained.

572-591. War with Persia, growing out of an insurrection in Armenia, which was supported by the emperor. The Persians took Dara (573) and devastated Syria. In 575 Khusr II ravaged the country as far as Cappadocia, but was finally driven back by the imperial commander, Maurikios.

578-582. TIBERIUS, emperor. His reign was marked by a great inundation of the Slavs, who advanced into Thrace and Greece and settled in large numbers, thus changing profoundly the ethnographic composition of the Balkan populations.

582-602. MAURICE (Maurikios), emperor. Like his forerunner Justin, he pursued a policy of retrenchment, which only made him unpopular in the capital. The reign was marked by constant disturbances and by widespread dissatisfaction.

583. The Avars, grown to be a formidable power, took the ferts along the Danube.

589-591. Last phase of the Persian War. Khusr I had died in 579. In 589 a military revolt led to the deposition of

Khusr II who fled to Constantinople. The emperor, espousing his cause, led a great army to the east (591) and restored him to the throne. In return the emperor received Dara and the larger part of Armenia.

591. The Avars raided to the very gates of Constantinople.

593. The imperial armies, under Priscus, proceeded against the Avars. The latter were defeated at Viminacium (601) after which Priscus pushed on to the Theiss.

602. A mutiny of the troops on the Danube, led by Phocas, resulted in a march to the capital, the outbreak of popular insurrection in the city, and the flight of the emperor.

602-610. PHOCAS, emperor. He was an untutored soldier, cruel and utterly incompetent. Maurice was captured and executed with his sons. All his supporters met with a like fate.

606-608. Resumption of the Persian War. The Persians again captured Dara and overran Syria and Mesopotamia (608) advancing through Anatolia as far as Chalcedon.

610. Conspiracy against Phocas, led by Priscus and supported by the Exarch of Africa. The latter sent an army by land which conquered Egypt, while a fleet from Carthage arrived at Constantinople. The mob thereupon rose, slew Phocas and proclaimed Heraclius, the son of the exarch, as emperor.

610-641. HERACLIUS I, founder of a new dynasty in whose reign the empire became definitely a Greek (*Byzantine*) monarchy. Heraclius found the empire in a parlous state, threatened from the north by the Avars and from the east by the Persians. But he showed himself an able organizer, general and statesman, and found in the Patriarch Sergius a courageous supporter.

611-622. The Persian advance. They took Antioch, Apameia, Emesa, and Kaisereia, Damascus (613), Jerusalem (614), which was sacked, the inhabitants and the Holy Cross being transferred to Ctesiphon. In 615 the Persians were at Chalcedon. In 619 they conquered Egypt.

618. The imperial possessions in Spain were lost to the Visigoths.

619. The Avars appeared at Constantinople, which was threatened on the Asiatic side by the Persians. Heraclius was deterred from flight to Africa only by the influence of the patriarch.

622-630 DEFEAT OF THE PERSIANS

Heracius, with a newly organized army and supported by a tremendous outburst of religious enthusiasm (the *Byzantine Crusade*), took the offensive against the Persians and carried on three brilliant campaigns in the Transcaucasian region refusing to allow himself to be distracted by the constant attacks of the Avars in the Balkans. In the battle of Nineveh (Dec 12, 627) he won a decisive victory, which enabled him to advance to Ctesiphon (628). The death of Khusrau (628) and dynastic disorders in Persia made possible the conclusion of a victorious peace. All the Persian conquests were returned and the Holy Cross restored to Jerusalem.

626 The Avars and Slavs attacked Constantinople by land and sea, but were unable to storm the walls. This marked the height of the Avar power.

634-641. The Arab conquests (p 184)

They took Bostra (634); Damascus (635), by the battle of Yarmuk (636) gained all Syria, forced the surrender of Jerusalem (637), overran Mesopotamia (639) and conquered Egypt (640-642).

635 Alliance between the emperor and Kuvrat, King of the Bulgars, intended to break the power of the Avars.

638. The *Echthesis*, a formula elaborated by the Patriarch Sergius and other churchmen in the hope of reconciling the Monophysites, who were welcoming rather than opposing the Islamic advance. The formula recognized one will in the two natures of Christ (*monotheletism*), but failed to win acceptance in Syria and Egypt. On the contrary, it called forth much opposition in the strictly orthodox Italian and African possessions.

641. HERACLIUS CONSTANTINUS, son of Heracius, became emperor but died in a few months under suspicious circumstances.

641. HERACLEONAS, younger son of Heracius, emperor under his mother's tutelage. He was almost at once overthrown by the army.

641-668. CONSTANS II (Constantinus), grandson of Heracius emperor.

He was an energetic and able ruler, who did his utmost to check the Arab advance. With this object in view he reorganized the provincial administration by establishing *themes (themata)* under military governors with wide powers (*strategoi*) and authority over the civil officials. This system greatly strengthened administrative control and was the basis of the imperial organization for centuries.

643. The Arabs took Alexandria, last outpost of the Greeks in Egypt.

647-648 Arab invasion of North Africa.

648 The Arabs, having assembled a fleet, took Cyprus.

649. Pope Martin condemned the teaching of the *Echthesis*, but was soon arrested by the March of Ravenna (653) and sent to Constantinople.

653. The Arab advance continued. Armenia was conquered (653) and Rhodes plundered (654). In 655 the Arab fleet defeated an imperial armada under the emperor's own command off the Lycian coast. But in 659 a truce was concluded with the Arab commander in Syria.

663-668 Transfer of the court to Italy.

Constans was intent on blocking the Arab conquest of Sicily and Italy and had dreams of restoring Rome as the basis of the imperial power. But he failed to make any conquests in Italy at the expense of the Lombards and in his absence the Arabs annually invaded and devastated Anatolia.

668. Constans was murdered in the course of a mutiny at Syracuse.

668-685 CONSTANTINE IV (Pogonatus), the son of Constans, a harsh character, but an able soldier. He had been in charge of affairs and had come to Sicily to put down the revolt that had resulted in his father's death. On his return to Constantinople, the troops obliged him to accept his brothers Heracius and Tiberius as co-rulers, but after 680 Constantine was sole emperor. His reign witnessed the high point of the Arab attack, accompanied as usual, by repeated incursions of the Slavs in the Balkans.

673-678. The Arab attacks on Constantinople. After a siege by land and sea (Apr-Sept 673), the assailants blockaded the city and attacked it every year for five years. The city was saved by the strength of its walls and by the newly invented Greek fire, which raised havoc with the Arab fleet. In 677 the Greeks destroyed the Arab fleet at Syllaeum and secured a favorable thirty-year peace (678). Never again did the Arab menace become so pressing. The empire had proved itself a formidable bulwark of Europe.

675-681. Repeated assaults of the Slavs on Thessalonica. The city held out, but the settlement of Thrace and Macedonia and northern Greece by Slavic tribes continued uninterruptedly.

679. Appearance of the Bulgar menace. The Bulgars, a people of Turkish race had pressed westward through south-

ern Russia and settled in Bessarabia. The emperor failed in his efforts to defeat them there. They crossed the Danube, settled in the region between the river and the Balkan Mountains, gradually fused with the Slavs and became largely Slavized and founded the first coherent Slavic power in the Balkans.

680-681. The sixth oecumenical council at Constantinople condemned the monothelite heresy and returned to pure orthodoxy. Since the loss of Syria and Egypt, there was no longer any need for favoring the monophysite view. The return to orthodoxy was a victory for the papal stand and was probably intended to strengthen the Byzantine hold on Italy. In actual fact the Patriarch of Constantinople (now that the Patriarchs of Antioch, Jerusalem, and Alexandria were under Moslem power) became more and more influential in the east and the primacy of the Roman pope was hardly more than nominal.

685-695 **JUSTINIAN II**, the son of Constantine and the last of the Heraclian dynasty. He ascended the throne when only sixteen and soon showed himself to be harsh and cruel, though energetic and ambitious like most members of his family.

689. The emperor defeated the Slavs in Thrace and transferred a considerable number of them to Anatolia.

692. The Byzantine forces were severely defeated by the Arabs in the battle of Sebastopolis.

695. A revolt against the emperor, led by Leontius and supported by the clergy and people, initiated a period of twenty years of anarchy. Justinian was deposed and exiled to the Crimea (Cherson).

695-698. **LEONTIUS**, emperor. His reign was marked by the domination of the army.

697-698 The Arabs finally took Carthage and brought to an end the Byzantine rule in North Africa.

698-705 **TIBERIUS III**, made emperor by another revolt in the army. The reign was distinguished by an insurrection against Byzantine rule in Armenia and by constant Arab raids in eastern Anatolia.

705-711 **JUSTINIAN II**, who returned to the throne with the aid of the Bulgar king. He took an insane revenge on all his enemies and instituted a veritable reign of terror.

711 The emperor failed to suppress a serious revolt in the Crimea, supported by the Khazars. The insurgent

troops, under Philippicus, marched on Constantinople and finally defeated and killed Justinian in an engagement in northern Anatolia.

711-713 **PHILIPPICUS**, emperor. He proved himself quite incompetent and was unable to check the raids of the Bulgars (reached Constantinople in 712) or the ravages of the Arabs in Cilicia (they took Amasia, 712).

713-715 **ANASTASIUS II**, emperor, the creature of the mutinous Thracian army corps. He attempted to reorganize the army, but this led to new outbreaks.

715-717. **THEODOSIUS III**, an obscure official put on the throne by the army. He was helpless in the face of the Arabs, who in 716 advanced as far as Pergamon. The invaders were finally repulsed by the *strategos* of the Anatolian theme, Leo, who forced the abdication of the emperor and was enthusiastically proclaimed by the clergy and populace of the capital.

717-741 **LEO III** (*the Isaurian*), founder of the Isaurian dynasty, an eminent general and a great organizer. Leo used drastic measures to suppress revolts in the army and re-established discipline by issuing new regulations. The finances were restored by heavy, systematic taxation, but steps were taken, by an agrarian code, to protect freemen and small holders. By the *Euloga* (739) the empire was given a simplified law code, distinguished by the Christian charity of its provisions. In the administrative sphere Leo completed the theme organization, dividing the original units and making seven themes in Asia and four in Europe.

717-718 Second great siege of Constantinople by the Arabs. The siege conducted by land and sea, lasted just a year and ended in failure due to the energetic conduct of the defense.

726 Beginning of the great iconoclastic controversy. Leo found the empire generally demoralized and a prey to superstition and miracle-mongering. Like many devout persons (especially in the Anatolian regions), he disapproved of the widespread image-worship, which he proceeded to forbid. Behind these measures there undoubtedly lay the desire to check the alarming spread of monasticism, which withdrew thousands of men from active economic life and concentrated great wealth in the cloisters, which were free from taxation. The first measures led at once to a revolt in Greece (727), whence a fleet set out for Constantinople with an anti-em-

peror This was destroyed by the Greek fire of the imperial fleet The pope at Rome (Gregory II) likewise declared against the emperor's iconoclasm and the population of the Exarchate of Ravenna rose in revolt and made an alliance with the Lombards Only with the aid of Venice were a few crucial stations held by the imperial forces A fleet from the east failed to restore Byzantine authority (731) In revenge the emperor in 733 withdrew Calabria, Sicily, and Illyria from the jurisdiction of the pope and placed them under the Constantinople patriarch

739 The Byzantine forces won an important victory over the Arab invaders of Anatolia in the battle of Akroinon

741-775. Constantine V (*Kopronymos*) the son of Leo and for years associated with him in the government Constantine was autocratic, uncompromising, and violent, but withal able and energetic as well as sincere A revolt of his brother-in-law, Artavasdos, was supported by the idolaters and by part of the army It took fully two years to suppress it

745 The emperor, taking the offensive against the Arabs, carried the war into Syria

746. The Greeks destroyed a great Arab armada and reconquered Cyprus

746 The empire suffered from the greatest plague epidemic since the time of Justinian

751-752 The emperor led a successful campaign against the Arabs in Armenia The Arabs were weakened by the fall of the Omayyad Caliphate and the removal of the capital from Damascus to Baghdad (p 189)

751 The Lombards conquered the Exarchate of Ravenna The pope thereupon called in the Franks and was given the former Byzantine territory by Pepin (*Donation of Pepin*) (p 153).

753. The Church Council of Hieria approved of the emperor's iconoclastic policy Therewith began the violent phase of the controversy The monks offered vigorous resistance, but the emperor was unbending The monks were imprisoned, exiled, and some even executed, monasteries were closed and their properties confiscated, images were destroyed or whitewashed

755-764 Nine successive campaigns against the Bulgars. The emperor won important victories at Marcellae (759) and Anchialus (763) and, despite some re-

verses, forced the Bulgars to conclude peace (764)

758. The Slavs were defeated in Thrace and a large number of them settled in Asia

772. Renewal of the war with the Bulgars, marked by further victories of the emperor

775-780. LEO IV, the son of Constantine In religious matters he simply continued his predecessor's policy

778-779. Victory over the Arabs at *Germanikeia* (778) and their expulsion from Anatolia

780-787. CONSTANTINE VI ascended the throne as a child, wholly under the influence of his ambitious, unscrupulous, and scheming mother, Irene, and her favorites Irene, anxious to secure support for her personal power, devoted herself almost exclusively to the religious question The Arabs, who again advanced to the Bosphorus (782), were bought off with heavy tribute (783). On the other hand, the general, Staurakios, carried on a successful campaign against the Slavs in Macedonia and Greece (783)

787. The Council of Nicaea abandoned iconoclasm and ordered the worship of images Tremendous victory for the monkish party, which soon advanced far reaching claims to complete freedom for the Church in religious matters

790 The army, opposed to the monks, mutinied and put Constantine in power Irene was forced into retirement The emperor set out on campaigns against the Arabs and Bulgars, but met with indifferent success

792 Constantine recalled his mother and made her co-ruler She took a vile advantage of him and after his divorce and a remarriage arranged by her (795), put herself at the head of a party of the monks in opposing the step A rising of the army put her in control and she had her son taken and blinded (797)

797-802. IRENE, the first empress Though supported by able generals (Staurakios and Aetios), she preferred to buy peace with the Arabs (798) and devote herself to domestic intrigue

800 Resurrection of the empire in the west, through the coronation of Charlemagne The Eastern Empire refused all recognition of the claim

802-811 NICEPHORUS, who was put on the throne by a group of conspiring officials of the government Irene, deposed, died in 803 Nicephorus was a firm

- ruler, who carried through a number of much-needed financial reforms
- 803 The emperor made peace with Charlemagne, the Eastern Empire retaining southern Italy, Venice, and Dalmatia
- 804-806. The Arabs resumed their raids in Anatolia and ravaged Cyprus and Rhodes, ultimately forcing the conclusion of a humiliating peace
- 809 Banishment of the monks of Studion, who, under Theodoros of Studion, took the lead in advancing claims of church freedom. They went so far as to appeal to the Roman pope and offer to recognize his primacy
- 809-813 War with Krum, the powerful king of the Bulgars. The emperor was defeated and killed in a great battle (811)
811. STAURAKIOS, son of Nicephorus, was emperor for a few months
- 811-813. MICHAEL I (*Rhngabé*), brother-in-law of Staurakios, emperor. He proved himself quite incompetent, being unable to check the advance of Krum to Constantinople, or the success of the party of monks in domestic affairs
- 813-820 LEO V (*the Armenian*), called to the throne by the army. Though personally not much moved by the religious controversy, he could not avoid taking up the challenge of the monks
- 815 THE COUNCIL OF ST. SOPHIA marked the return to iconoclasm and the beginning of the second period of active and violent persecution of the monks
- 817 The emperor won a great victory over the Bulgars at Mesembria, Krum having died (814). The Bulgars were obliged to accept a thirty-year peace
- 820-829. MICHAEL II (*Phrygian dynasty*), succeeded to the throne after the murder of Leo by conspirators
- 822-824 Insurrection of the general, Thomas, in Anatolia. This was supported by the lower classes and encouraged by the Arabs. Thomas attempted twice to take Constantinople, but was ultimately defeated and executed in Thrace
826. Crete was seized by Moslem freebooters from Spain and until 961 remained the headquarters of pirates who ravaged the eastern Mediterranean
- 827-878. Conquest of Sicily by Moslems from North Africa
- 829-842. THEOPHILUS, emperor. He was an arrogant, theologizing fanatic who promulgated a new edict against idolaters (832) and pushed the persecution to the limit.
- 837-838. War against the Arabs. The Byzantine armies, after invading the caliphate, were repulsed. After a long siege, Amorion, one of the key positions on the frontier, was taken by the Moslems (838)
- 842-867 MICHAEL III, for whom his mother Theodora was regent. Advised by her brother, Bardas, she decided to end the religious controversy
- 843 Image-worship was restored. This was a great victory for the opposition party, but only in the matter of doctrine. Politically the power of the emperor over the Church remained unimpaired, if not strengthened
- 849 Reduction of the Slavic populations of the Peloponnesus, followed by their conversion
856. Theodora was obliged to retire, but her brother Bardas, an able but unprincipled politician, remained the real ruler of the empire by exploiting to the full the weaknesses of the emperor
860. First appearance of the Russians (*Varangians*) at Constantinople
- 863-885 Missionary activity of Cyril and Methodius of Thessalonica among the Slavs of Moravia and Bohemia. They invented the Glagolitic (i.e. Slavic) alphabet and by the use of Slavic in the church service paved the way for the connection of Slavic Christianity with Constantinople.
- 865 Tsar Boris of Bulgaria (852-889) allowed himself to be baptized. Although Michael III acted as godfather, the Bulgarian ruler was for a time undecided between the claims of Rome and Constantinople to religious jurisdiction in Bulgaria
- 866 Bardas was murdered by Michael's favorite, Basil.
- 867 Michael himself was deposed and done away with at Basil's order
- 867 Schism with Rome. The great patriarch, Photius, had replaced Ignatius in 858, whereupon the latter had appealed to the pope for an inquiry. Photius came to represent the Greek national feeling in opposition to Rome. He took a strong stand towards the papal claims and the Council of Constantinople (867) anathematized the pope, accused the papacy of

doinal abe a n e e d he dea of
Rome's primacy, etc.

867-886. BASIL I, founder of the *Macedonian dynasty* (he was really of Armenian extraction, though born in Macedonia). His reign initiated what was probably the most glorious period of Byzantine history. The empire had by this time become a purely Greek monarchy, under an absolute ruler. Settlement of the iconoclastic controversy released the national energies and there followed a period of brilliant military success, material prosperity, and cultural development. An important departure was the recognition of the idea of legitimacy and of an imperial family. This was paralleled by the gradual emergence of a feudal system.

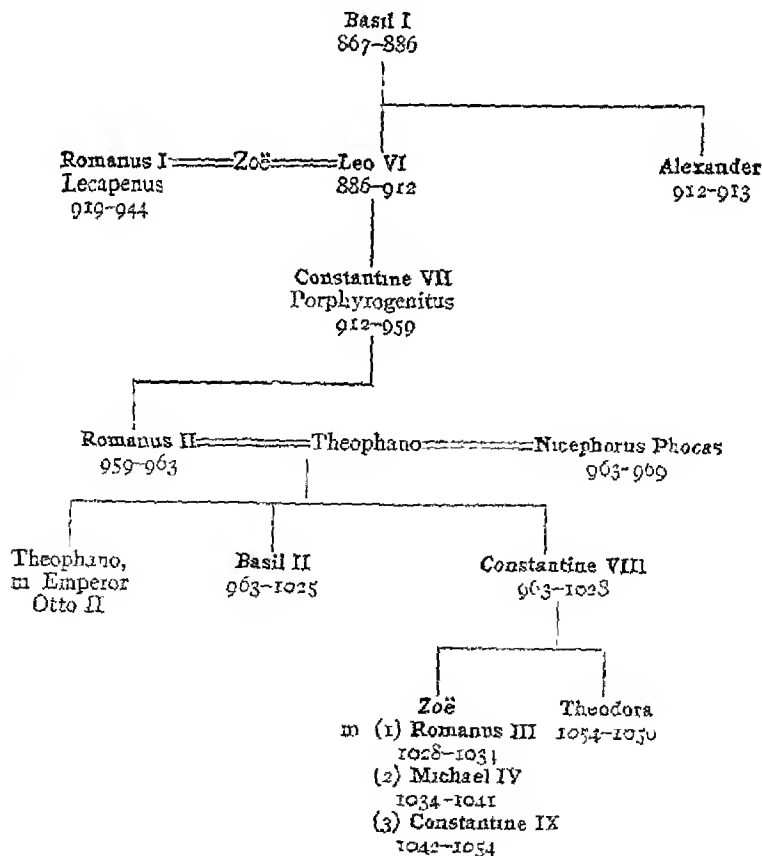
Basil I was himself an intelligent, firm, and orderly ruler, a good administrator and general, whose ambition was to restore the

empire both internally and externally. He rebuilt the army and especially the navy, and did much to revise the legal system. The *Procheiros Nomos* (879) a compilation of the most important parts of the Justinian code, the *Ephimeris* (886), a manual of customary law.

869. The eighth oecumenical synod. Photius had been banished (867) and Ignatius recalled. The latter made peace with Rome on papal terms, but conflict and friction continued.

871-879. Campaigns in the east. Border warfare with the Arabs was chronic, but the campaign against the Paulicians (Christian purists hostile to the empire) was a new departure. The imperial armies advanced to the upper Euphrates and took Samosata (873). In 878-879 victorious campaigns were carried through in Cappadocia and Cilicia. By land the

The Macedonian Emperors



Byzantine forces were gradually taking the offensive against the Moslems wracked by internal dissensions.

875 The Byzantine forces seized Bari in southern Italy. Some years later (880) they took Tarentum and then (885) Calabria, establishing two new themes in southern Italy, which became a refuge for Greeks driven from Sicily by the completion of the Saracen conquest (Syracuse taken, 878, Taormina taken, 902).

877. Photius was restored as patriarch and the break with Rome was renewed.

880-881. A number of naval victories over the Moslem pirates of the eastern Mediterranean marked the beginning of a long campaign against this scourge.

886-912. LEO VI (*the Wise*), a somewhat pedantic philosopher, but nevertheless a determined ruler with a high sense of his office and obligations. He deposed Photius at once and put the Ignatians back in power. The result was a renewal of the union with Rome (900), which, however, could hardly be more than external. The reign of Leo was marked also by further legislative work. The *Basilika* (887-893) provided a series of 60 new law books, consisting largely of a compilation of decrees since the time of Justinian.

889- War with the Bulgarians, who now entered the period of greatness under Tsar Symeon (893-927). The emperor encouraged the Hungarians to attack by way of diversion and most of Symeon's reign was taken up with continued campaigns against this enemy. Symeon was educated at Constantinople and was deeply impressed with Greek culture, which he introduced in Bulgaria.

904. The Saracen corsair, Leo of Tripoli, stormed Thessalonica, plundered it and carried off some 20,000 of the inhabitants.

907. The Russians, under their prince, Oleg, appeared again at Constantinople and secured rights of trade.

912-913. ALEXANDER, the brother of Leo, emperor for less than a year.

913-959. CONSTANTINE VII (*Porphyr-ogenitus*) ascended the throne as a child, with a regency composed of his mother Zoe, the Patriarch Nikolas, and John Lidas. Constantine was a learned man of artistic tastes. He never really governed, leaving the actual conduct of affairs to strong men who were associated with him.

913-917. The Bulgarian threat. Tsar Symeon, who had established a brilliant capital at Preslav (seat also of the Bulgarian patriarchate), styled himself Em-

peror of the Romans, and undoubtedly hoped to possess himself of the imperial crown. In 913 he appeared at Constantinople, in 914 he took Adrianople, only to lose it again. But in 917 he defeated a Byzantine army at Anchialus. The war continued, indecisively, for years. In 924 Symeon again appeared at Constantinople.

915. A Byzantine victory over the Arabs at Gangusano assured the empire of its possessions in South Italy.

919-944. ROMANUS I LECAPENUS, co-emperor with Constantine. He was the emperor's stepfather, an able but ruthless Armenian, whose whole policy was designed to strengthen his own power and establish that of his family.

920-942. Brilliant campaigns of the Byzantine general, John Kurkuas, in the east. He took the modern Erzerum (928) and Melitene (934), and extended the imperial power to the Euphrates and Tigris.

920. Official reunion with Rome.

924. The piratical fleets of Leo of Tripoli were completely defeated off Lemnos. Nevertheless, the Moslem pirates continued to be the scourge of the Mediterranean.

927. The empire suffered from a great famine, which probably explains the stringent legislation of the government to prevent the purchase of small holdings by the great landed magnates.

941. A great armada of Russians, under Prince Igor, was signally defeated by the Greeks.

944. The Emperor Romanus was seized and imprisoned (d. 948) by the very sons whose interests he had attempted to serve. The Emperor Constantine became officially the sole ruler, but governed with the aid of the great general, Bardas Phocas, and under the influence of the Empress Helena and her favorite, Basil.

955. Visit to Constantinople and baptism of Princess Olga of Russia.

959-963. ROMANUS II, the young and dissipated son of Constantine.

961. Reconquest of Crete from the Saracen pirates. A great armada was sent out under Nicephorus Phocas. Candia was stormed, the Moslems expelled from the island or converted to Christianity.

962. Otto I, Roman emperor in the west, claimed suzerainty over the Lombards in southern Italy, initiating a period of union with Constantinople, which was only temporarily broken by the

ma age o O o II a d the Byzant ne princess, Theophano (972).

963-1025. BASIL II, an infant at the death of his father. The principle of legitimacy was carefully respected, but before Basil II really assumed power, the empire was governed by two great generals associated with him.

963-969 NICEPHORUS PHOCAS, who had carried on a successful campaign in the east. He seized control and married the widowed Empress Theophano. Never popular, especially with the clergy, Nicephorus, by his victories in the field helped to raise the empire to its greatest glory.

964-968 Victorious campaign in the east. Adana was taken (964) and then Tarsus (965). Cyprus was reconquered and in 968 northern Syria was invaded. Aleppo and even Antioch fell into the hands of the Greeks.

966-969. The Bulgarian campaign, carried through with the aid of Sviatoslav and the Russians. The latter, with their fleets, were so successful on the Danube that the Greeks made peace with the Bulgars.

969. Nicephorus Phocas was overthrown by a conspiracy of officers led by his own nephew.

969-976. JOHN ZIMISCES, an Armenian by birth and one of the greatest of Byzantine generals.

969. Sviatoslav, the Russian, crossed the Balkan Mountains and took Philippopolis. John Zimisces marched against him, defeated him near Adrianople, and, with the aid of the Byzantine fleet on the Danube, forced him to evacuate Bulgaria (972). John thereupon annexed eastern Bulgaria as far as the Danube to the empire. The Patriarchate of Preslav was abolished.

971. A great feudal insurrection, led by Bardas Phocas, was put down only with difficulty.

972-976. Continuation of the campaigns in the east. John took Edessa and Nezib (974), Damascus and Beyrut (976), and advanced to the very gates of Jerusalem, where he was halted by the Moslem forces from Egypt.

976. Sudden death of John Zimisces, at the early age of 57.

976-1025. BASIL II (*Bulgarobionos* = *Slayer of the Bulgarians*) now became sole emperor. He was only 20 years old, but serious and energetic, cynical and cruel. Until 989 he was much influenced by Basil the Eunuch, the illegitimate son of Romanus Lecapenus. The reign of Basil

was another great feudal upheaval, led by Bardas Skleros, who marched his armies from the east through Anatolia and to Constantinople. Basil appealed to Bardas Phocas, defeated leader of the earlier rising, to save the situation, which he did by defeating Skleros at Pankalia (979).

976-1014. Tsar Samuel of Bulgaria. He built up another great Bulgarian empire, with its capital at Ochrid and extending from the Adriatic to the Black Sea and from the Danube to the Peloponnese. In 981 he defeated Basil near Sofia.

987. Rising of Bardas Phocas and Bardas Skleros against Basil and the imperial authority. The great feudal barons overran Anatolia. In 988 they threatened Constantinople, but the movement collapsed with the defeat of Phocas at Abydos (989) and his subsequent death. Skleros then submitted.

989. Conversion of Prince Vladimir of Russia, at Cuerson. This initiated the general conversion of the Russians to eastern Christianity and the close connection between Kiev and Constantinople.

992. Extensive trade privileges in the empire were granted to Venice, by this time quite independent of imperial control, but in close co-operation with Constantinople in the Adriatic.

995. Victorious campaigns of the emperor in the east. Aleppo and Homs were taken and Syria incorporated with the empire.

996. Land legislation of Basil II. Many of the great estates were confiscated and divided among the peasants and provision made to prevent the further development of feudalism.

996-1014. THE GREAT BULGARIAN CAMPAIGNS. In 996 Basil defeated Samuel on the Spercheios River and reconquered Greece. In 1002 he overran Macedonia. Samuel recovered, however, reconquered Macedonia and sacked Adrianople (1003). In 1007 Basil subdued Macedonia again and after years of indecisive conflict annihilated the Bulgarian army at Balathista (1014). He sent several thousand blinded soldiers back to Samuel, who died of the shock. The Bulgarians finally submitted (1018), but were left their autonomy and an autocephalous church at Ochrid. Many of the Bulgarian noble families settled in Constantinople and merged with the Greek and Armenian aristocracy.

1018 The Byzantine forces won a great victory over the combined Lombards and Normans at Cannae, thus assuring continuance of the Greek domination in southern Italy.

1020. The King of Armenia, long in alliance with the Greeks against the Arabs, turned over his kingdom to Basil to escape the new threat from the Seljuk Turks. Thereby the empire became firmly established in Transcaucasia and along the Euphrates.

BYZANTINE CULTURE reached its apogee in the late 10th and early 11th centuries. The empire extended from Italy to Mesopotamia and its influence radiated much farther. Constantinople indeed, was the economic and artistic center of the Mediterranean world.

Government: The emperor was an absolute ruler, regarded almost as sacred. Under the Macedonian emperors the idea of legitimacy became firmly established. The imperial court reflected the emperor's power and splendor. There was an extensive and elaborate ceremonial (cf. the *Book of Ceremonies* of Constantine Porphyrogenitus); the administration was highly centralized in Constantinople and was unique for its efficiency, the treasury was full and continued to draw a large income from taxes, customs, and monopolies, the army and navy were both at the peak of their development, with excellent organization and leadership, the provinces were governed by the *strategoi*, there were by this time 30 *themes* (18 in Asia and 12 in Europe) but throughout this period there was a steady growth in the number and power of the provincial magnates (*dynatoi*), feudal barons who acquired more and more of the small holdings and exercised an ever greater influence, even challenging the emperor himself. All the legislation of the Macedonian emperors failed to check this development.

The Church was closely connected with the throne but during this period it too became more and more wealthy and gradually produced a clerical aristocracy. The union with Rome when it existed, was a purely formal thing. The Greek patriarchate in practice resented the Roman claim to primacy and the popular dislike of the Latins made any real co-operation impossible.

Economic life This was closely controlled by the state, which derived much of its income from the customs and monopolies. Yet it was a period of great commercial development, Constantinople serving as the entrepôt between east and west.

It was also a great center of the industry in luxuries (organization of trades in rigid guilds, etc.).

Learning The University of Constantinople (opened c. 850) had quickly become a center of philosophical and humanistic study, in which the emperors took a direct interest. In the 11th century there appeared the greatest of the Byzantine scholars, Psellus, reviver of the Platonic philosophy and universal genius. In the field of literature there was a conscious return to the great Greek models of the early Byzantine period, historians, Constantine Porphyrogenitus, Leo the Deacon, etc. The great popular epic, *Digenes Akritas*, describing the heroic life of the frontier soldiers (*akritai*), dates from the 10th century.

Art The period was one of extensive construction, especially in Constantinople, full exploitation of the St. Sophia type in church architecture; mosaics, icons, gold and silver work. Byzantine influence in this period permeated the entire Mediterranean world, Moslem as well as Christian. (Cont. p. 248)

b. THE FIRST BULGARIAN EMPIRE TO 1018

The Bulgarians, first mentioned by name in 482 as a people living to the northeast of the Danube, were members of the Finno-Tatar race, probably related to the Huns and at first ruled by princes of Atilia's family. They were organized on the clan system, worshiped the sun and moon, practiced human sacrifice, etc.

584-642. KURT, or KUBRAT, of the Dulo family, the first authenticated ruler. His dominions lay in the eastern steppes, from the Don to the Caucasus. In 619 he visited Constantinople to secure aid against the Avars, at which time he became converted to Christianity, though this step seems to have had no consequences for his people.

643-701. *Ispersikh* (*Asperuch*), the son or grandson of Kurt. The old Great Bulgaria was disrupted by the attacks of Avars and Khazars, and various tribes of Bulgars moved westward into Pannonia and even into Italy. Those under *Ispersikh* crossed the Danube (650-670) and established a capital at Piskha. In 680 they defeated a Byzantine army and occupied the territory between the Danube and the Balkan Mountains. At the same time they still held Wallachia, Moldavia, and Bessarabia. The amalgamation with the Slavic inhabitants was probably very gradual, the upper, military classes remaining strictly Bulgar for a long time.

- 701-718** Tervel, who established friendly relations with the Emperor Justinian II, who paid a subsidy or tribute to the Bulgars, but only after the imperial forces had been defeated at Anchialus (708) and after Tervel had advanced to the very gates of Constantinople (712)
- 718-724.** Ruler unknown
- 724-739.** Sevar, during whose reign the peace with the empire was maintained. The Dulo dynasty came to an end with Sevar, whose death was followed by an obscure struggle of noble factions
- 739-756** Kormisosh, of the Ulul family. Until the very end of his reign he maintained peace with the empire, until further domestic disorders gave the signal for Byzantine attacks (755 ft.)
- 756-761** Vnekh, who was killed in the course of an uprising
- 761-764.** Telets, of the Ugain family. He was defeated at Anchialus by the Byzantines (763) and put to death by the Bulgarians
- 764** Sabir, of the family of Kormisosh. He was deposed and fled to Constantinople
- ? 764** Pagan, who finally concluded peace with the emperor
- 766.** Umor, who was deposed by
- 766** Tokt, who was captured and killed by the Greeks. This entire period is one of deep obscurity, the years 700-773 being a complete blank
- ? 773-777** Teleng, whose family is unknown. The Greeks renewed their attacks, which were on the whole successful and resulted in the subjugation of Bulgaria
- 777-791.** Ruler unknown.
- ? 791-797.** Kardam, whose reign marked the turning of the tide. He took advantage of the confusion in the empire to defeat the Greeks at Marcellae (792) and to lay the foundations of the state. What happened after his death is unknown
- 806-814** KRUM, one of the greatest Bulgarian rulers. He appears to have been a Pannonian Bulgar, who rose to power as a result of his victories over the Avars. During his short reign he organized the state and encouraged the Slav elements at the expense of the Bulgar aristocracy. His objective seems to have been the establishment of the absolute power of the khan. For five years (808-813) he carried on war with the Byzantine Empire. The Greeks sacked Pliska (809, 811), but Krum defeated and killed the emperor in a battle in the mountains (811). In 812 he took the important fortress of Mesembria and in 813 won another victory at Versinikia. In the same year he appeared at Constantinople. The city was too strong for him, but he retired, devastating Thrace and taking Adrianople
- 814-831.** Omortag, the son of Krum. After a defeat by the Greeks (815), he concluded a thirty-year peace with them (817), returning Mesembria and Adrianople. Construction of the earthwork barrier (the *Great Fence*) on the Thracian frontier. Founding of the new capital Great Preslav (821). During the peace in the east, the Bulgars began systematic raids into Croatia and Pannonia (827-830)
- 831-852** Malamir, the son of Omortag, the period of whose reign is vague excepting his gradual expansion into upper Macedonia and Serbia (837)
- 852-889** BORIS I. He continued the campaigns in the west, but suffered severe defeats by the Germans (853) and a setback from the Serbs (860). Boris' reign was important chiefly for his
- 865.** Conversion to Christianity. The way had undoubtedly been prepared by numerous prisoners of war, but Boris was induced to take the step under pressure from Constantinople, where the government was eager to frustrate a possible German-Roman advance. Boris had all his subjects baptized, which led to a revolt and the execution of a number of noble leaders. For some time Boris was undecided whether to lean toward Rome or toward Constantinople. To counteract the aggressive Greek influence he accepted the primacy of Rome (866), but then turned to Constantinople (870) when the pope refused to appoint an archbishop for Bulgaria. In 883 the Slavonic liturgy was introduced among the Slavs of Bulgaria by the successors of Cyril and Methodius. In 889 Boris voluntarily retired to a monastery.
- 889-893** Vladimir, the son of Boris, who was soon exposed to a violent aristocratic, heathen reaction
- 893.** Boris re-emerged from retirement, put down the revolt, deposed and blinded his son, completed the organization of the Church and made the Slavonic liturgy general in its application. The capital was definitely moved to Preslav. Boris then returned to his monastery, where he died (907)
- 893-927.** SYMEON, another son of Boris, the first Bulgarian ruler to assume

the title *Tsar*. Symeon had been educated at Constantinople, as a monk. He was deeply imbued with Greek culture and did much to encourage translations from the Greek. Splendor of Great Preslav and Symeon's court, development of a second cultural center at Ochrid, under St. Clement and St. Nahum.

894-897. Symeon's reign was filled with wars against the Byzantine Empire, which grew originally out of disputes regarding trade rights and ultimately developed into a contest for possession of the imperial throne. The war began in 894, with the defeat of a Greek army. The emperor thereupon induced the Magyars, located on the Pruth River, to attack the Bulgarians in Bessarabia (895). Symeon induced the Greeks by trickery to withdraw and then defeated the Magyars, after which he returned and fell on the Greeks at Bulgarophrygon. Peace was made in 897, the emperor paying tribute.

In the meanwhile the Magyars, driven westward by the Patzinaks (Pechenegs), advanced into Transylvania and Pannonia, which were lost to the Bulgars.

913. Symeon, taking advantage of the dynastic troubles in the empire, advanced to Constantinople, but withdrew with many presents and the promise that the young emperor, Constantine Porphyrogenitus, should marry one of his daughters. Symeon evidently hoped to attain the crown for himself, but was frustrated by the seizure of power by Zoe. He thereupon made war (914), raiding into Macedonia, Thessaly and Albania. But the Patzinaks, instigated by the Greeks, invaded and occupied Wallachia (917) while Symeon defeated the Greeks near Anchialus (917). In 918 Symeon defeated the Serbs, who had also been aroused by the empress.

919-924. Symeon four times advanced to the Hellespont and Constantinople, but was unable to take the city because of his lack of a fleet. In 924 he had an interview with the Emperor Romanus Lecapenus and finally made peace.

925. Symeon proclaimed himself Emperor of the Romans and the Bulgars. The Greek emperor protested, but the pope recognized the title.

926. Symeon set up Leontius of Preslav as a patriarch.

926. Conquest and devastation of Serbia.

927-969. Peter, the son of Symeon, a pious, well-intentioned but weak ruler, who married the granddaughter of Romanus Lecapenus. Peace with Constantinople was maintained, the Greek emperor

recognizing the Bulgar ruler as emperor and acknowledging the Bulgarian patriarchate. Bulgaria was, during this period, occupied by the constant threat from the Magyars (raids, 934, 943, 958, 962) and the Patzinaks (great raid of 944). Internally the period seems to have been one of unrest and religious ferment (founding of monasteries, St. John of Rila; beginning of the Bogomil heresy, c. 950, a dualistic creed possibly inspired by the Paulicians settled in the Thracian region by the Byzantine emperors).

967. Invasion of Bulgaria by Sviatoslav and the Russians. Tsar Peter roused the Patzinaks, who attacked Kiev in 968 and forced Sviatoslav to withdraw.

969-972. Boris II. The reign was filled with the second invasion of Sviatoslav, who took Preslav and captured Boris and his family (969). The Greeks, in alarm, sent an army against him and defeated him at Arcadiopolis (970). In 972 the Emperor John Zimisce attacked the Russians by land and sea. He took Preslav and destroyed it, besieged Sviatoslav at Dristra on the Danube and finally forced him to evacuate Bulgaria. Boris was obliged to abdicate, the patriarchate was abolished, and Bulgaria came to an end as a separate state.

976-1014. SAMUEL, son of a governor of one of the western districts which had been unaffected by the Russian invasion, set himself up as ruler. He soon expanded his domain to Sofia, and re-established the patriarchate (ultimately fixed at Ochrid, which was the center of the new state).

986-989. Samuel took Larissa after several annual raids into Thessaly and c. 989 took also Dyrrhacium on the Adriatic coast. In the east he extended his power to the Black Sea.

996-1014. The campaigns of Basil II (*Bulgaroktonos* = Slayer of the Bulgarians) against Samuel. Basil proceeded to reduce one stronghold after another. Samuel avoided open battle as much as possible, but throughout suffered from defection of his leaders, who were bribed by attractive offers by the emperor. The crowning defeat of the Bulgarians at Balaustia (1014) and the sight of his 15,000 blinded warriors brought on Samuel's death.

1014-1016. Gabriel Radomir (or Romanus), the son of Samuel. He tried to make peace but was murdered by his cousin.

1016-1018 John Vlad slay who continued the war, but was killed in a battle near Dyrrhacum. He left only young sons. The Bulgar leaders thereupon decided to submit. Bulgaria was incorporated into the Byzantine Empire (*themes* of Bulgaria

and Paristrum), the patriarchate was abolished, but the Archbishop of Ochrid retained practical autonomy. The Bulgarian aristocracy settled in Constantinople and merged with the leading Greek families.

(*Cont. p. 247*)

3. THE MOSLEM WORLD

a. MOHAMMED AND ISLAM

Arabia before the time of Mohammed was inhabited by tribes of Semitic race, those in the desert areas (*Bedouins*) of nomadic, pastoral habits, those in the coastal valleys along the Red Sea (Hedjaz, Yemen) much more settled, engaged in agriculture and trade. The towns of Mecca and Medina were centers of considerable commercial and cultural development, in which Greek and Jewish influence was probably quite marked.

570-632. MOHAMMED He was the posthumous son of Abdullah of the Hashimite sept of Mecca. Having lost his mother when about six, he was brought up by his grandfather, Abdul-Muttalib, and his uncle, Abu Talib. Mohammed became a merchant in the caravan trade, serving Khadija, a widow of means whom he married when he was about 25, thus achieving for himself a modest independence. Given to religious meditation and affected by the Christian and Jewish ideas and practices, he began his prophetic career about 612, preaching the One God, the Last Judgment, Alms, Prayers, and surrender to the will of God (Islam). Gaining a few adherents, but rejected and persecuted by his townsmen, he and his followers fled to Medina, on July 2, 622.

622, July 15. The traditional (though erroneous) date of Mohammed's flight (*Hijrah*, *Hegira*). This date has been adopted as the beginning of the Moslem era.

622-632 In Medina, Mohammed organized the commonwealth of Islam by welding together the Meccan fugitives and the Medinan tribes in and around the town (the Aus and the Khazraj), and expelling or devoting the Jewish tribes into a community based on the will of God as revealed to his prophet, and on the common law of the tribesmen. At the same time he carried on war against the Meccans.

624-630. The Moslems defeated the Meccans at Badr (624), but were themselves defeated at Ohod (625). The

Meccans thereupon besieged Medina (627) but were repulsed. By the Treaty of Hudaibiya (628) Mohammed and his followers were granted permission to make the pilgrimage to Mecca. When the treaty was broken by the allies of the Meccans, the war was resumed and Mohammed took Mecca (630). Many of the Arab tribes were subdued before Mohammed's death (632).

The six essential articles of the Moslem faith are: Belief in the One God, Allah, in his angels and in his prophet, Mohammed, the last of the prophets, belief in his revealed books, of which the *Koran* is the last and the only one necessary, belief in the Day of Resurrection, and in God's predestination, which determines the fate and the actions of men.

The six fundamental duties are: The recitation of the profession of faith, attesting the unity of God and the mission of Mohammed, the five daily prayers, the fast in the month of Ramadhan, the pilgrimage to Mecca, and the Holy War.

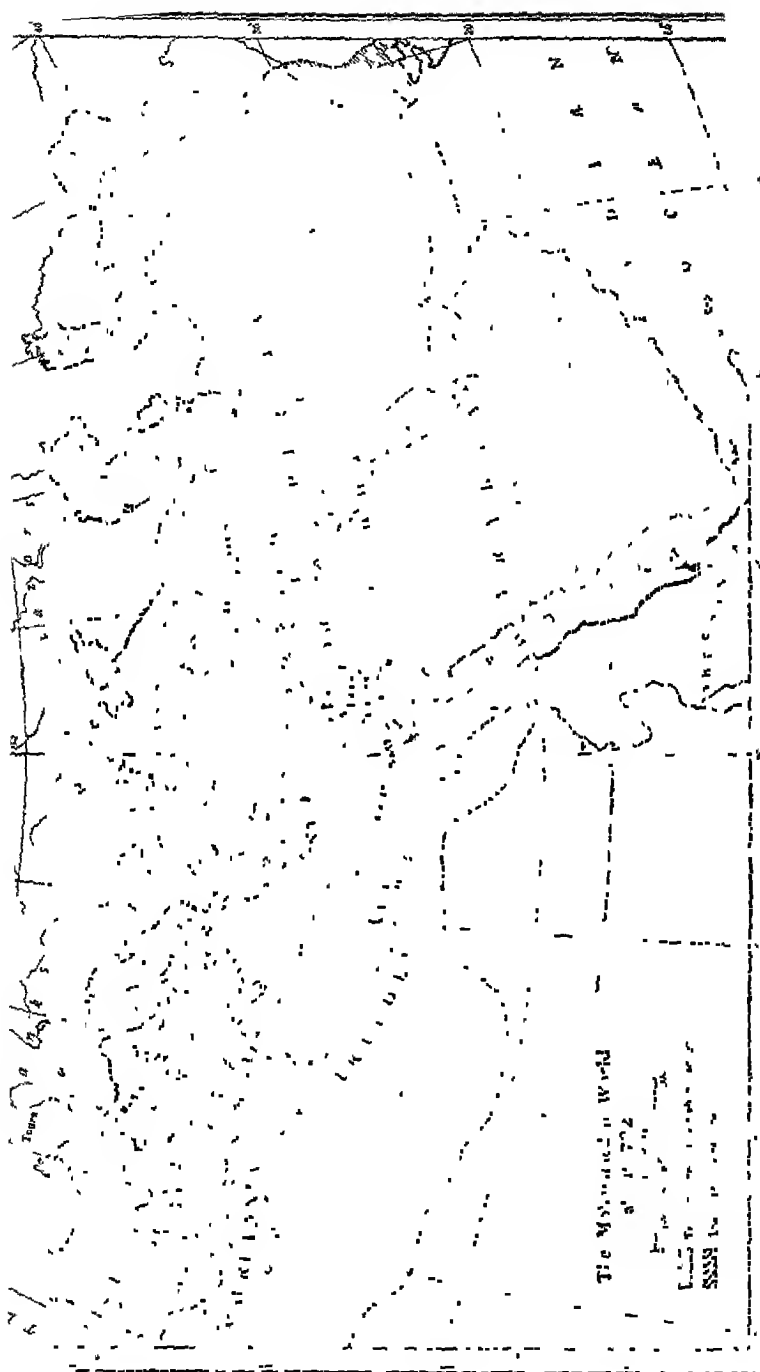
632-661. The Orthodox Caliphate, including the first four caliphs.

632-634. Abu Bakr, the first caliph or vicerent of the Prophet, chosen by acclamation. Defeat of the so-called false prophets, Tulayha and Musaylima, reduction of the rebellious tribes (634).

632-733. EXPANSION BEYOND ARABIA. First incursion into Iraq (Persia) under Khalid ibn al-Walid (633). Hira, the ancient Lakhmid capital, and Obolla taken and put to ransom. The main advance, however, was against Syria. Defeat of Theodore, brother of the Emperor Heracius, at Ajnadayn (*Jannabatuyn*) between Gaza and Jerusalem (634). Death of Abu Bakr, who appointed as his successor

634-644. Omar, who first assumed the title of *Amir al-Mu'minin* (*Prince of the Faithful*) and established the primacy of the Arabs over their taxpaying subjects.

Conquest of Syria. Defeat of the Byzantines under Baanes at Marj al-Saffar, near Damascus, by Khalid (635). Damascus and Emessa taken, only to be given up, however, under the pressure of superior forces. Decisive defeat of the B



at *Yamuk* south of the Lake of Tiberias (636). Damascus and Emessa retaken. Subjugation of northern Syria, Aleppo and Antioch taken. Capitulation of Jerusalem (638). Caesarea captured (640). The sea-coast occupied. Northern boundary of the caliphate the Amanus Mountains. Subjugation of Mesopotamia (639-641).

Conquest of Persia. After a disastrous defeat at the *Battle of the Bridge*, the Moslems resumed their attack on Persia. Invasion and occupation of Iraq (635-637). Defeat of the Persians under Mithran at Buwayh by Mu'tanna (635). The Persian chancellor, Rustam, defeated by Sa'd ibn-abī-Waqqās at Qadisiya (637). Al-Madam (*Ctesiphon*) taken (637). Persians defeated again at Jalula, fifty miles north of Madam (637). Invasion and occupation of central Persia (638-650). Final defeat of the Persians at Nēnawand (642).

Conquest of Egypt. Invasion of Egypt by the Arabs under Amr ibn al-'As (639). Pelusium taken (640). Byzantines defeated at Helopolis (640). Death of the Emperor Heraclius (641). Capture of Babylon (642). Capitulation of Egypt arranged by Cyrus, Patriarch of Alexandria (642). Terms: security of person and property guaranteed to the inhabitants on payment of a tribute and free exercise of their religion. Omar assassinated (644). His successor was chosen by a body of electors.

644-656. Othman, a member of the Omayyad family of Mecca, notorious for his nepotism. The official redaction of the *Koran* made by Zayd ibn Thabit in this reign.

Occupation of Barca and the Pentapolis (642-643). Revolt of Alexandria inspired by the appearance of a Byzantine fleet (645). The city retaken by assault (645). Creation of an Arab fleet by Abdullah ibn Sa'd governor of Egypt. Capture of Cyprus (649) and Aradus (650). Expedition against Constantinople, annihilation of the Byzantine fleet at Dhat al-Sawari on the Lycian coast (655). Disaffection of Arab troops in Iraq and Egypt owing to Othman's nepotism, led to the assassination of Othman in Medina. He was succeeded by

656-661. Ali, the prophet's cousin and son-in-law, whose succession was disputed.

First civil war. Revolt of Talha and Zobayr, two old companions of the Prophet, and 'A'isha the Prophet's favorite wife, in Iraq. They seized Basra, but were defeated by Ali in the *Battle of the Camel*, near that town.

Revolt of Mo'awiya, Omayyad governor of Syria, who demanded revenge for the

murder of his kinsman, Othman. Indecisive battle of Siffin (657). Hostilities suspended by an agreement to arbitrate the dispute. Arbitration of Adlurrah (658). Rejection of the decision by Ali, who was deserted and opposed by a party of his followers, the Kharijites, whom he decimated at Nahrawan. Egypt taken for Mo'awiya by its first conqueror Amr (655). Murder of Ali by a Kharijite.

b. THE OMAYYAD CALIPHATE, 661-750

661-680. Mo'awiya, founder of the Omayyad dynasty.

Hasan, Ali's eldest son, was proclaimed caliph but abdicated in the face of Mo'awiya's advance on Iraq. Mo'awiya, who had been proclaimed caliph in Jerusalem in 660, moved the seat of government to Damascus. Expedition against Constantinople, Chalcedon taken, Constantinople besieged (669). Ifriqiya (North Africa from the eastern limits of Algeria to the frontiers of Egypt) invaded and the conquest consolidated by the founding of Qairawan by 'Uqba ibn Nafi' (670). In the east under Mo'awiya's brilliant viceregent, Ziyad ibn Abihi, Sind and the lower valley of the Indus were overrun by Mohallib. Eastern Afghanistan invaded. Kabul taken (664). The Oxus was crossed and Bokhara captured (674). Samarcand taken (676). Moslem advance to the Jaxartes.

Blockade of Constantinople by the Moslem fleet (673-678). Failure of the Moslem attack. Peace concluded for thirty years (678). Death of Mo'awiya, who had proclaimed as his successor in 670.

680-682. Yazid I.

The second civil war. Husayn, the second son of Ali, was invited by the Kufans in Iraq to assume the caliphate. Advancing from Mecca he was basely deserted by the Kufans, defeated, and slain at the famous battle of Kerbela (680), whence the Shiite celebration of the martyrdom of Husayn each year in the month of Muharram.

Revolt of Abdullah ibn Zubayr, the candidate for the caliphate supported by the Meccans and Medinans. Defeat of the Medinans on the Harra near the town. Siege of Mecca, the Ka'ba burned. Death of Yazid.

The son and successor of Yazid, Mo'awiya II, died some months after his father. Ibn Zubayr's caliphate accepted in Arabia, Iraq, Egypt, and by the adherents of the Qais tribe in Syria. The Omayyad party with its adherents of the Kalb tribe chose Marwan ibn al-Hakam, a cousin of Mo'

awiya I. The Qais were defeated with great slaughter at Marj Rahit (684), north of Damascus, which began the disastrous feud between the so-called northern and southern Arabs, which was largely responsible for the fall of the Arab kingdom of the Omayyads.

684-750. THE MARWANIDS.

684-686. Marwan I. Proclaimed caliph in Syria. Egypt was recovered from Ibn Zubayr. Death of Marwan. He was succeeded by his son,

686-705. Abdulmalik, creator of the Arab administration of the empire.

Inroads of the Mirdaites of the Amanus, encouraged by the Byzantines, occupied Abdulmalik's first years. His rival, Ibn Zubayr, was occupied by Shi'ite and Kharijite revolts in Kufa and Basra, Arabia and Persia.

The Shi'ite sect were supporters of the claims of the "House of the Prophet," the descendants of the Caliph Ali, and of the prophet's daughter, Fatima. Later they developed the dogma of the Imamate, that the Imam (the leader of the people) was the representative or incarnation of the deity and the only seat of authority both religious and civil.

The Kharijites held that any Moslem in good standing could be elected by the community as caliph. They held that *Works* were an essential part of religion and that those who committed mortal sins were unbelievers. Both sects were bitter opponents of both the Omayyad and the Abbasid dynasties.

Mus'ab, Ibn Zubayr's brother and governor in Iraq, was defeated by Abdulmalik on the Tigris (690). Medina was captured by Abdulmalik's general, Hajjaj, later his governor in Iraq (691). Mecca was besieged and captured (692). Ibn Zubayr was killed and Abdulmalik became undisputed master of the empire. The Kharijites (Azraqites) were crushed in Iraq and Persia by Muhallib (693-698). A rebellion in the east under Ibn al-Ash'ath, who was proclaimed caliph, was put down by Hajjaj (699). Kabul retaken.

In Africa Oqba ibn Nafi, now a saint, had raided as far as Tangier, but had met death on his return march (683). Carthage, however, was finally taken (698), and peace concluded with the Berbers, after they had defeated the Arabs under Hassan ibn Numan near Mons Aurasius (703). Thereupon the Berbers became allies of the Arabs. Death of Abdulmalik. He was succeeded by his son,

705-715. Walid I, who built the cathedral mosque at Damascus. Conquest of Transoxania under Qutayba (705-715).

Bokhara taken (709), Samarkand (710), Ferghana (711). It is reported that Qutayba invaded China and reached Kashgar (c. 713). Conquest of Sind and part of the Punjab by Mohammed ibn Qasim (708-715).

Invasion of Cilicia (710-711) and of Galatia (714). Preparations for a grand attack on Constantinople by land and sea. Subjugation of the western Berbers and pacification of North Africa by Musa ibn Nusayr (708-711).

711-715. CONQUEST OF SPAIN.

Invasion of Spain by a mixed force of Arabs and Berbers under Tariq, a freed slave of Musa (711). The Goths under their king, Roderick, were totally defeated in Wadi Belke, near Rio Barbate (not at Xeres de la Frontera) (July, 711). Fall of Ecija, Cordova, and the capital, Toledo. Tariq master of half of Spain. The advance of Musa himself (712). Capture of Medina Sidonia, Carmona, Seville (710), Merida (713), and Saragossa. Resistance to Arab arms continued only in the mountains of Asturias. Death of Walid. He was succeeded by his brother,

715-717. Sulayman. Conquest of Jurjan (Hyrcania) and Tabaristan by Yazid ibn Muhallib (716). Siege of Constantinople by the caliph's brother, Maslama (717-718), which failed. The crossing of the Pyrenees and invasion of southern France by Hurr, the successor of Musa. Sulayman succeeded by his cousin,

717-720. Omar ibn Abdul-Azz, who attempted to reorganize the finances of the empire. Members of the subject races, who had become Moslems, were placed on the same footing as the Arabs in respect to taxation. Narbonne in southern France taken by Samh, the successor of Hurr. Omar was succeeded by the third son of Abdulmalik,

720-724. Yazid II. Samh was defeated and killed by the Duke Eudo before Toulouse (721). Revolt of Yazid ibn Muhallib in Iraq. His defeat at Akra on the Euphrates by Maslama. Outbreak of internecine strife between the Yemenites (Kalb) and Modharites (Qus) (the so-called southern and northern Arabs) throughout the empire, especially in Khorasan and Transoxania, where propaganda for the Abbasids (descendants of the prophet's uncle, Abbas) also began. Yazid was succeeded by his brother,

724-743. Hisham. Defeat of the Khazars, conquest of Georgia (727-733).

732. Invasion of southern France by Abdurrahman, governor of Spain; his defeat at Poitiers (Tours) by Charles Martel.

- 735** **Kharīte revolts in Iraq** Insurrection of Sogdians and Arabs in Khorasan supported by the Turkomans of Transoxania, was quelled by Chalid ibn Abdallah al-Kasri, governor of Khorasan
- 740.** **Shi'ite revolt in Iraq under Zayd**, grandson of the martyred Husayn, his defeat and death Hisham was succeeded by his nephew
- 741-742.** **The Revolt of the Kharijites and Berbers in North Africa** was put down by Hanzala, the viceroy in North Africa.
- 743-744.** **Walid II**, who was killed in a Yemenite revolt led by his cousin, who succeeded him as Yazid III, only to die a few months later. He was succeeded by the last Omayyad
- 744-750.** **Marwan II**, the grandson of Marwan I. Insurrections in Syria at Homs and in Palestine Kharijite revolt in Mesopotamia (745), and in Arabia (745-746) Mecca and Medina seized by the rebels Shi'ite insurrection in Iraq and Persia under Abdullah, grandson of Ali's brother, Ja'far, which was joined by Kharijites and Abbassids (745-747) The black standard of the Abbassids was raised by Abu Muslim in Khorasan (747). Marwan's governor of Khorasan, Nasr, was defeated at Nishapur and Jurjan by Abu Muslim's general, Kahtaba who routed the Omayyad forces again at Nehawand and Kervela. Marwan himself was defeated at the battle of the Zab, and was pursued to Busir, Egypt, and killed (750). Slaughter of the Omayyad princes. Few escaped, but among those was Abdurrahman, grandson of Hisham, who later founded the Omayyad Kingdom of Cordova in Spain (755).
- c. THE ABBASID CALIPHATE, 750-c.1100**
- 750-1258 THE ABBASID CALIPHATE.** Spain never recognized it, nor did Morocco Abbasid authority was re-established in the Province of Africa as far as Algiers in 761, but only for a short period
- 750-754.** **Abu-l-Abbas al-Saffah**, the first Abbasid caliph Omayyad revolts in Syria and Mesopotamia Byzantine raids into the northern provinces. Abu al-Saffah was succeeded by his brother,
- 754-775.** **AL-MANSUR**, the real founder of the dynasty The revolt of his uncle, Abdullah, governor of Syria, was crushed by Abu Muslim, who was then murdered at Mansur's orders (754) Revolt of Abu Muslim's followers in Khorasan (755). A Byzantine invasion was repulsed with great slaughter. Cappadocia recaptured, Mahtia (*Alchtene*), Mopsuestia, and other cities rebuilt and fortified against Byzantine raids (758) Annexation of Tabanstan (759), Shi'ite revolt in Iraq and Medina under the Hasanids, Mohammed and Ibrahim (762) Foundation of Baghdad (762) Khazar invasion of Georgia repelled (762) Insurrection of Ustad Sis in Khorasan and Sistān (767). Rise of the Barmecides to power as viziers of the realm (752-803) Mansur was succeeded by his son,
- 773-785.** **AL-MAHDI**, noted for his improvement of the communications of the empire, his fortification of important centers, his founding of towns and schools, and his encouragement of the arts
- Persecution of the Manichaeans Revolt of the veiled prophet, Mokanna, in Khorasan (775-778) Rise of a communistic, nihilistic sect, the Zindiqs, in Khorasan, western Persia, and Iraq Invasion of the Byzantines, who were routed. Moslem advance against Constantinople, the Empress Irene forced to sue for peace (783-785). Mahdi was succeeded by his son,
- 785.** **Al-Hadi**, who reigned only a year and was succeeded by
- 786-809.** **HARUN AL-RASHID** (of *Arabian Nights* fame). Kabul and Samhar were annexed to the empire (787) Khazar invasion of Armenia (799) Fall of the Barmecides (803). Kharijite revolts
- 791-809.** **War with the Byzantines.** Defeat of Nicephorus at Heraclea or Dorylaeum (798) The peace, which was concluded, was broken by Nicephorus, and the Moslems invaded Asia Minor led by the caliph in person. Capture of Tyana (805) Advance to Ancyra. Meanwhile Cyprus (805) and Rhodes (807) were ravaged by the Moslem fleet. Iconium and Ephesus in Lydia captured. Sideropolis, Indrasus, and Nicaea reduced Heraclea Pontica on the Black Sea taken by storm Nicephorus again invaded Moslem territory in 808, but troubles in Khorasan compelled Harun to march east, where he died In his reign the **Hanafite school of law** began to assume a systematic form He was succeeded by his son,
- 809-813.** **AL-AMIN**, against whom his brother Mamun rebelled and was accepted as caliph in Persia Siege of Baghdad by Mamun's general Tahir (812). Amin was murdered after surrendering on terms

813-833. MAMUN THE GREAT.

His reign probably the most glorious epoch in the history of the caliphate. The arts and sciences were liberally endowed. Two observatories were built, one near Damascus, the other near Baghdad. A *House of Knowledge*, provided with a rich library, was erected near the Baghdad Observatory. Literary, scientific, and philosophical works were translated from Greek, Syriac, Persian, and Sanscrit. A liberal religious attitude adopted. Mu'tazilism became the established faith. The Mu'tazilites maintained, like the Qadarites of the later Omayyad period, man's free will, also that justice and reason must control God's action toward men, both of which doctrines were repudiated by the later orthodox school or the Ash'arites.

Transference of the capital by Mamun from Merv to Baghdad, owing to Omayyad and Shi'ite revolts in Arabia, Iraq, and Mesopotamia. To meet this crisis he had proclaimed as his heir-apparent, Ali al-Ridha, a descendant of the Caliph Ali (817).

Conquest of Crete (from Egypt) by Arabs who had been expelled from Spain by the Omayyads (825), of Sicily by the Aghlabites of North Africa (827). Palermo taken (831). Only Syracuse and Taormine left in Byzantine hands.

Terrorization of the northern provinces by the Magian, *Babek*, leader of the communistic Kharramites, from his stronghold in Azerbaijan (810-843). Byzantine invasions in his support were repulsed by Mamun in person (829-833). Death of Mamun. In his reign the Tahirids of Khorasan became practically independent (820-872). Mamun was succeeded by his brother,

933-842. Al-Mu'tasim. Transference of the capital to Samarra (836).

Formation of a standing military corps composed of Turkish slaves and mercenaries, of whom the later caliphs were the mere puppets.

Revolt of the Jats or Gypsies on the lower Tigris (834). Babek was defeated by Atshin and put to death (837-838). War with Byzantium (837-842). Defeat of the Byzantines at Anzen on the Halys, Ancyra destroyed, Amorium, the place of origin of the Byzantine dynasty, captured (838). Preparations for the siege of Constantinople. Arab fleet destroyed by a tempest. Death of Mu'tasim (842) and his succession by his son,

842-847. Wathiq, who continued his father's policy of aggrandizing the Turks at the expense of the Arabs and Persians. Interchange of prisoners between the Byzantines and Moslems. Wathiq's reign

marks the beginning of the decline of the caliphate. He was succeeded by his brother,

847-861. Mutawakkil, who sought to re-establish the traditional Moslem faith. Mu'tazilite doctrines were abjured, their professors persecuted. Shi'ites, Jews, and Christians also persecuted. The mausoleum of Husayn, the martyr of Kerbela, was razed to the ground. Damietta in Egypt was taken and Cilicia ravaged by the Byzantines. Mutawakkil was murdered by his Turkish guard and was succeeded by his son,

861. Muntasir, who reigned only six months when he was deposed by the Turkoman chiefs of his guard, who raised to the throne another grandson of Mu'tasim, Musta'in (862-866), who escaped from the Turks to Baghdad, but was forced by them to abdicate and was later murdered by an emissary of his successor. Mu'tazz (866-869), in whose reign Egypt became virtually independent under Ahmad ibn Tulun, founder of the Tulunid dynasty. Mu'tazz was murdered by his mutinous troops and succeeded by Mu'qatil (869-870), a son of Wathiq, who was compelled to abdicate by the Turks, who chose as his successor the eldest surviving son of Mutawakkil,

870-892. Mu'tamid, who transferred the court to Baghdad; and for this and the next two reigns the power of the Turkish guard was successfully checked.

The Zenj rebellion in Chaldea (869-883), which devastated this region for fifteen years, was put down finally by the caliph's brother, Muwaffiq. A Byzantine invasion of Syria was repelled by the Tulunid governor of Tarsus.

In this reign the caliphate lost its eastern provinces. The Saffarid dynasty was founded by Ya'qub ibn Layth, who established himself in Sistan, drove out the Tahirids of Khorasan, and became master of the whole of modern Persia. The dynasty lasted from 870 to 903, when it was extinguished by the Samanids of Transoxania who had succeeded the Tahirids there (872), and who after the overthrow of the Saffarids, ruled from the borders of India to Baghdad and from the Great Desert to the Persian Gulf. Their power was finally broken by the Ilak Khans of Turkestan (999), who then ruled over Transoxania, Kashgar, and eastern Tataria from Bokhara (932-1165). Under the Samanids, Bokhara was the intellectual center of Islam.

Mu'tamid was succeeded as caliph by his nephew,

892-902. Mu'tadid, who restored Egypt to the caliphate and reformed the

law of inheritance His successor, Muqtafi (902-908), brought Egypt under his direct control and repulsed the Byzantines, storming Adaha

891-906 The Carmathian revolt. These communistic rebels overran and devastated Arabia, Syria, and Iraq, took Mecca, and carried away the sacred Black Stone Muqtafi was succeeded by

908-932. Muqtadir, his brother, during whose reign occurred the conquest of North Africa by the Fatimid, Obaydullah al-Mahdi, who also drove out the last Aglabite, Ziyadatullah, from Egypt Establishment of the Ziyarids in Tabaristan, Jurjan, Ispahan, and Hamadhan as independent sovereigns (928-1024). Rise of the Buwayhids (932-1055) under the patronage of the Ziyarids Conquest and division of Persia and Iraq by the three Buwayhid brothers, Imad al-Dawla, Rukn al-Dawla, and Mu'izz al-Dawla Mu'izz granted the title of Amir al-Umara (Prince of the Princes) by the Caliph Mustaqfi (945). The caliphs became puppets of the Amir al-Umara The Buwayhid dominions fell piecemeal to the Ghaznawids, the Kakwayhids of Kurdistan (1007-1057), and the Seljuks, owing to divisions among the Buwayhid rulers

962-1186. THE GHAZNAWIDS Founder of the dynasty was Subaktagin, a Turkish slave of Alptagin, himself slave and commander-in-chief of the Samanids in Khorasan and independent prince of the petty fief of Ghazna in the Sulayman mountains Subaktagin defeated the Rajputs and received Khorasan from the Samanids (994) His successor, MAHMUD (*the Idol-Breaker*), one of the greatest figures in the history of Central Asia, became master of Khorasan (1000) and invaded India several

times His court was the resort of famous scholars and poets, such as Beiruni and Firdausi The Ghaznawids were overthrown by the Seljuks

929-1096. Meanwhile in Syria and Mesopotamia four Arab dynasties and one Kurdish dynasty held sway

929-1003. The Hamdanids of Mosul and Aleppo, the most famous of whom Sayf al-Dawla, took Aleppo from the Ikhshidids of Egypt (944) and warred successfully against the Byzantines His court was one of the brilliant centers of Islam in the 10th century The great Arab poet, Mutannabi, was its chief ornament The Hamdanids were descendants of the Arab tribe of Taghlib Their dominions were absorbed by the Fatimids and the Buwayhids

1023-1079 The Mirdasids of Aleppo, of the Arab tribe of the Banu Kilab, were engaged in continual warfare with the Fatimids and the Buwayhids, and were finally driven out by the

996-1096 Uqaylids of Mosul, a division of the Banu Ka'b tribe, who succeeded the Hamdanids in Mosul, and whose dominions under Muslim ibn Quraysh extended from the neighborhood of Baghdad to Aleppo Their domain was ultimately merged in the Seljuk Empire

990-1096. The Marwanids of Diyar-Bakr, established by the Kurd, Abu-l Ali ibn Marwan, ruled over Amid, Mayyariyanqun, and Aleppo They too fell before the Seljuks

1012-1050 Mazyadids of Hilla, a tribe of the Banu Asad The fourth ruler of this dynasty, The Sadaqa, was one of the great heroes of Arab history The state was ultimately absorbed by the Zanjids

(Cont p 254)

B. THE AGE OF THE CRUSADES

1. WESTERN EUROPE

a. THE BRITISH ISLES

(1) *England, 1066-1307*

1066-1087. WILLIAM I (*the Conqueror*), of medium height, corpulent, but majestic in person, choleric, mendacious, greedy, a great soldier, governor, centralizer, legislator, innovator

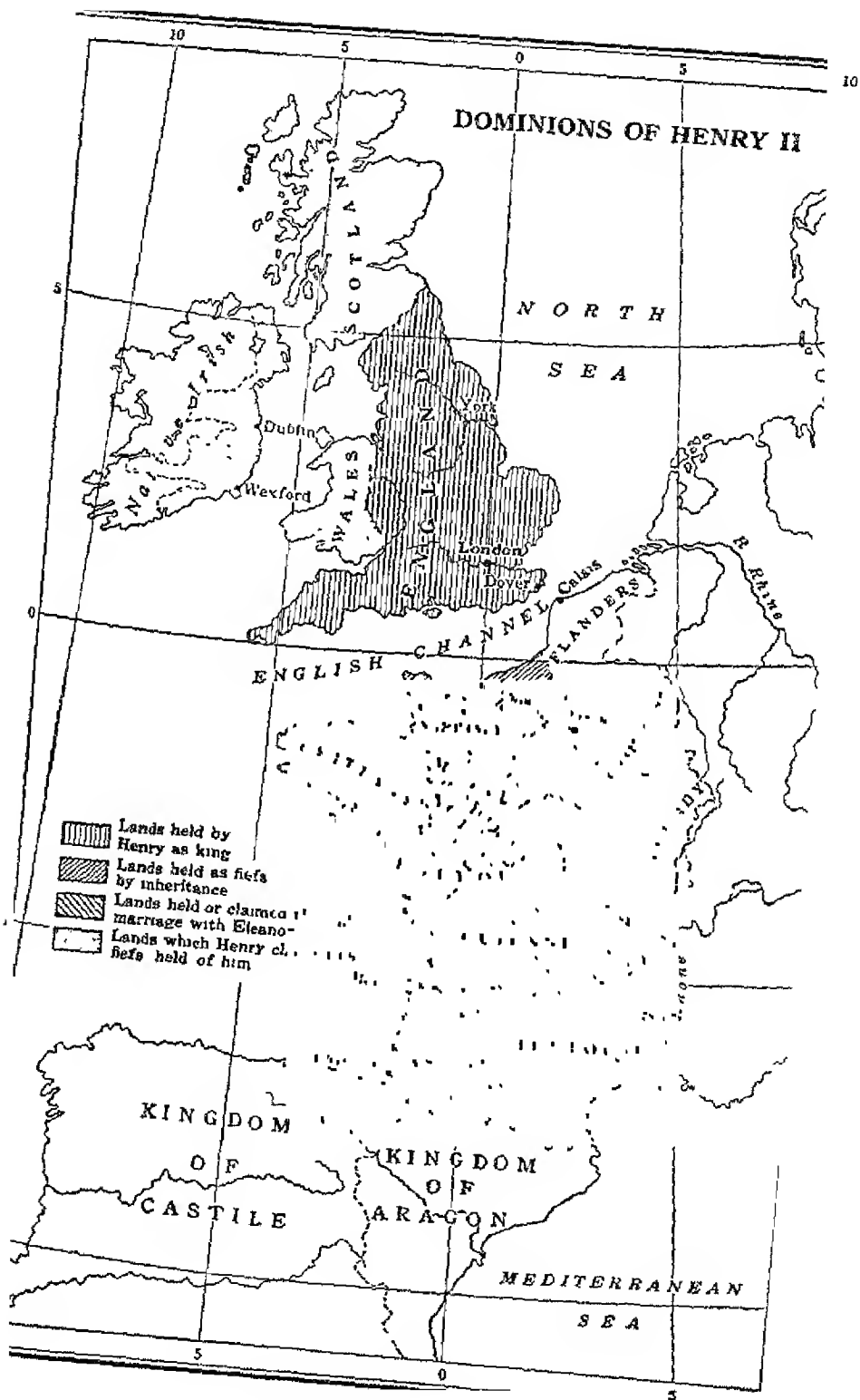
1066-1072 Rapid collapse, speedy submission or reduction of the south and east. The Confessor's bequest, acceptance by the Witan, and coronation "legalized" William's title. Reduction of the southwest (1068). Reduction of the rest of England (1067-1070) a series of local risings leniently dealt with, construction by forced native labor of garrison castles (Norman mounds). Great rising of the north (Edwin and Morca's second) with Danish aid (1069) put down by William in person. The "harrying of the north" (1069-1070), a devastation (often depopulation) of a strip from York to Durham (the consequences survived to modern times) ended Scandinavian opposition in England. Reduction of Hereward's last stand (the "last of the English") in the Isle of Ely (1070-1071), raid into Scotland (1072).

Norman fusion, conciliation, innovation.

(1) Feudalization on centralized Norman lines (on the ruins of the nascent Saxon feudalism) followed military reduction and confiscation of the rebel lands (1066-1070). Theoretically every bit of land in England belonged to the crown, in practice only the great estates changed hands and were assigned to William's followers on Norman tenures. The king retained about one sixth of the land, less than a half of the land went to Normans on feudal tenures. Except on the border few compact holdings survived, the earldoms, reduced in size, became chiefly honorific. Some 170 great tenants-in-chief, and numerous lesser tenants emerged. A direct oath (the *Oath of Salisbury*) of primary vassalage to the crown was exacted from all vassals, making them directly responsible to the crown (1086). Construction of castles (except on the borders) subject to royal license, coinage a royal monopoly, private war prohibited. (2) *The Anglo-Saxon shires* (34)

and hundreds continued for local administration and for local justice (bishops no longer sat in the shire courts and the earls were reduced) under the sheriffs (usually of baronial rank), retained from Anglo-Saxon days, but subject to removal by the king. The sheriffs were an essential link between the (native) local machinery and the central (Norman) government. Communities were held responsible for local good order, sporadic visitations of royal commissioners. Anglo-Saxon laws little altered. (3) Early grant of a charter to London guaranteeing local customs. (4) Innovations of the centralizing monarch: a royal council, the Great Council (*curia regis*), meeting infrequently (three stated meetings annually replaced the Anglo-Saxon Witan and was of almost the same personnel: tenants in chief, the chancellor (introduced from Normandy by Edward the Confessor), a new official, the justiciar (in charge of justice and finance, and William's viceroy during his absences), the heads of the royal household staff. This same body, meeting infrequently, and including only such tenants in-chief as happened to be on hand, constituted the Small Council, a body which tended to absorb more and more of the actual administration.

The Church retained its lands (perhaps a fourth of the land in England). Pope Alexander II had blessed William's conquest, and William introduced the (much-needed) Cluniac reforms. Archbishop Stigand and most of the bishops and great abbots were deprived or died, and were replaced by zealous Norman reformers, Lanfranc (an Italian lawyer, a former Prior of Bec), as Archbishop of Canterbury, carried through a wide reform: celibacy enforced, chapters reorganized, new discipline in the schools, numerous new monastic foundations. By royal decree episcopal jurisdiction was separated from lay jurisdiction and the bishops given their own courts, a decisive step in the evolution of the common law as an independent force. William refused an oath of fealty to Pope Gregory VII for his English conquests, and (despite the papal decree of 1075) retained control of the appointment of bishops and important abbots, from whom he drew his chief administrators.



(thereby making the Church, in effect, pay for the administration of the state). No papal bull or brief, no papal legate might be received without royal approval and no tenant-in-chief or royal officer could be excommunicated without royal permission. The king retained a right of veto on all decrees of local synods. The great prelates were required to attend the Great Council, even to do military service.

1086. The great Domesday survey: royal commissions on circuit collected on oath (sworn inquest) from citizens of the counties and vills full information as to size, resources and present and past ownership of every hide of land. The results, arranged by counties in *Domesday Book*, gave a unique record as a basis for taxation and administration.

Royal finance: (1) non-feudal revenues: Danegeld, shire farms, judicial fines; (2) the usual feudal revenues.

Military resources of the crown: (1) (non-feudal) the old Anglo-Saxon *fyrð* (including *shirf fyrð*) was retained (i.e. a national non-feudal militia, loyal to the crown, was used, e.g. against the Norman rebellion of 1075); (2) (feudal) about five thousand knights' fees owing service on the usual feudal terms. The prosperity of England under Norman rule was great and an era of extensive building (largely churches, cathedrals and monasteries) began under the Conqueror and continued even through the anarchy of Stephen and Matilda.

1087-1100. WILLIAM I (Rufus), a passionate, greedy ruffian, second son of the Conqueror designated by his father on his death-bed (Robert, the eldest, received Normandy, Henry, cash). A Norman revolt (1088) was put down largely with English aid, and William firmly settled on the throne. Justice was venal and expensive, the administration cruel and unpopular, taxation heavy, the Church exploited. On Lanfranc's death (1089), William kept the revenues of the See of Canterbury without appointing a successor until he thought himself dying, when he named (1093) Anselm (an Italian, Abbot of Bec, a most learned man, and a devoted churchman), who clashed with William over the recognition of rival popes. Anselm maintained church law to be above civil law and went into voluntary exile (1097). William, deeply hated, was assassinated (?) in the New Forest.

1100-1135. HENRY I (Beauclerc, Lion of Justice), an educated, stubborn, prudent ruler, a good judge of men, won the crown by a dash to the royal treasury at Winchester and a quick appeal to the nation by his so-called *Coronation Charter*, a

promise of reform by a return to the good ways of the Conqueror (a promise often broken). Henry married Edith (of the line of Alfred), whose name became Maud out of deference to the Norman's difficulties with Saxon names. Anarchy in Normandy under Robert's slack rule, an invitation from the revolting Norman barons, and the victory of Tinchebray (1106), gave Henry Normandy (Robert remained a prisoner until his death), and made a later struggle between the new English kingdom and the rising Capetian power in France inevitable. Anselm, faithful to the reforming program of the revived papacy, on his recall from exile refused homage for the archiepiscopal estates (i.e. he refused to recognize lay investiture) and refused to consecrate the bishops who had rendered such homage. Henry temporized until firmly on the throne, then seized the fiefs and exiled Anselm. Adela, Henry's sister, suggested the *Compromise of 1107* which terminated the struggle by clerical homage for fiefs held of the king, while the king allowed clerical investiture with the *secularia*. The crown continued to ... for the great prelates.

This reign was marked by a notable expansion, specialization, and differentiation of function in the royal administration (e.g. the exchequer, influenced by accounting methods from Lorraine or Laon). Extension of the jurisdiction of royal courts—growing use of royal writs detailing of members of the Small Council as judges on circuit (hitherto a sporadic, now a regular practice), who not merely did justice but took over increasingly the business formerly done by the sheriffs (e.g. assessment and negotiation of aids and other levies), and brought the *curia regis* into closer contact with shire and hundred courts.

Prosperity was general and trade in London attracted Norman immigrants. The Cistercians arrived (1128) and began an extensive program of swamp reclamation, mill and road building, agricultural improvement and stock-breeding. Henry began the sale of charters to towns on royal domain.

Influence of the Conquest on English culture: (1) *Architecture:* wide introduction of the Norman (Romanesque) style (e.g. St John's Chapel in the Tower of London, end of the 11th century, Durham Cathedral, c. 1066-1137). (2) *Literary:* Anglo-Saxon, the speech of the conquered, almost ceased to have a literary history, rapidly lost its formality of imitations and terminations, and became flexible and simple if inelegant. Norman French, the tongue of the court, the aristocracy, the schools, the

lawyers and judges, drew its inspiration from the Continent until the loss of Normandy (1204). The Normans then began to learn English and the Anglo-Saxon was enriched with a second vocabulary of Norman words, ideas, and refinements.

Anglo-Norman culture: (1) **Historical writing.** Geoffrey of Monmouth, *History of the Kings of Britain* (written in Latin, before 1147), created the tale of Arthur for Europe. Walter Map (c. 1140-c. 1200), author of Gohardic verse, welded the Grail story into the Arthurian cycle, giving it a moral and religious slant. Wace (c. 1124-c. 1174) *Roman de Brut* and *Roman de Rou*; Marie de France; all three were at the court of Henry II. (2) **Science:** Walcher of Malvern observed the eclipse of 1092 and attempted to calculate the difference in time between England and Italy. Walcher began to reckon in degrees, minutes, and seconds (1120). Adelard of Bath, a student of Arabic science in the service of Henry II, observed and experimented (e.g. the comparative speed of sound and light), translated Al-Khwarizmi's astronomical tables into Latin (1126) and introduced Al-Khwarizmi's trigonometric tables to the west. Robert of Chester translated Al-Khwarizmi's algebra into Latin (1145). (3) **Philosophy:** John of Salisbury (d. 1180), pupil of Abélard, the best classical, humanistic scholar of his day attached to the court of Henry II, and later Bishop of Chartres, wrote the *Policraticus*, etc. Beginnings of Oxford University (c. 1167) on the model of Paris, a center of national culture.

1135-1154. STEPHEN. Henry's son drowned on the White Ship (1120), and Henry had had his daughter Matilda (widow of the Emperor Henry V) accepted as his heir and married to Geoffrey of Anjou, as protector. Stephen of Blois (son of Henry's sister Adela) asserted and maintained his claim to the throne at the price of a dynastic war (till 1153) with Matilda, the climax of feudal anarchy, and the ruin of English prosperity. Archbishop Theobald finally negotiated a compromise (1153) whereby Matilda's son Henry should succeed to the crown on Stephen's death. The reign was remarkable for a tremendous amount of ecclesiastical building.

1154-1399. THE HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET (Angevin)

1154-1189 HENRY II Master of a hybrid "empire" (England, Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, by inheritance; Poitou, Aquitaine, Gascony, by marriage with Eleanor of Aquitaine (1152), Brittany (acquired, 1169), and Wales, Ireland, and Scotland (on a loose bond) without unity

save in the person of the ruler. Dynastic marriages; daughter Eleanor to the King of Castile, Joan to the King of Sicily. Matilda to Henry the Lion. King Henry was a man of education, exhaustless energy, experience as an administrator, realistic, violent of temper.

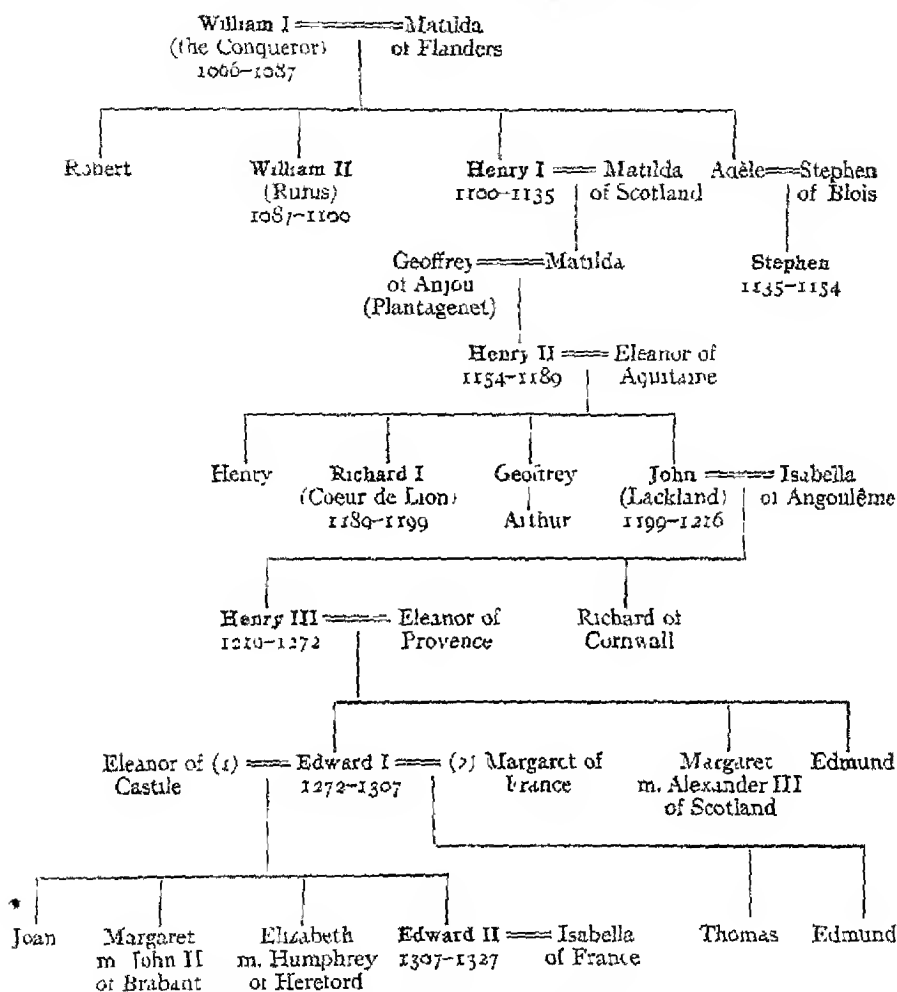
Restoration of England to the good order of Henry I dismissal of mercenaries, razing of unlicensed castles (1000?), reconquest of Northumberland and Cumberland from the Scots, resumption of crown lands and offices alienated under Stephen. Reconstitution of the exchequer and Great Council. After 1155 Henry felt free to leave England, and spent less than half his reign in the realm.

1155-1172. Struggle to reduce clerical encroachment on the royal courts.

Under Stephen anarchy and the theories of Roman law had favored the expansion of clerical courts, extending benefit of clergy to include even homicides. Thomas Becket (a deacon and crony of Henry's at the time of his elevation to the chancellorship, 1155) resigned as chancellor when he became Archbishop of Canterbury (1162), and clashed at once with Henry over the criminal clerks. The *Constitutions of Clarendon* (1164), largely a restatement of old customs (including the Conqueror's), provided (*inter alia*) for the indictment of clerics in royal courts, their trial in ecclesiastical courts, and their degradation, followed by their sentence and punishment in royal courts. They also extended royal (at the expense of clerical) jurisdiction, and asserted royal rights of control in episcopal elections. Becket yielded, was dispensed from his oath by the pope, violated the *Constitutions*, and fled to France. Reconciled (1170) with Henry, Becket returned excommunicated, certain bishops friendly to Henry, and was murdered in the Cathedral of Canterbury by four knights of Henry's court, spurred by Henry's outbreak of fury against Becket, but not by Henry's orders. Henry escaped excommunication by promising to abide by the papal judgment, and was reconciled with the papacy (1172) after an oath denying all share in the crime. After this incident Henry had no choice but to tolerate benefit of clergy, which continued to be an increasing scandal in England until the reign of Henry VII. Henry retained the right of presentation and virtual control over episcopal elections. The *Assize of Clarendon* (1166) contains the first civil legislation on heresy since Roman days.

1170. Extensive replacement of the (baronial) sheriffs with men of low

The Norman and Plantagenet Kings



rank, trained in the royal service. Henceforth the barons ceased to hold the shrievalty.

1173-1174 Reduction of the last purely feudal revolt, Henry's only use of mercenary troops in England

1181. The Assize of Arms by this reorganization of the old *fyrð* every free-man was made responsible, according to his income, for his proper share in the defense of the realm. The king thus ensured a national militia for the defense against the baronage.

Henry was not a great legislator, but he initiated a remarkable series of innovations

in government which fixed the political framework of national unity.

Judicial Reforms. (1) Increasing concentration of judicial business in the Small Council (2) Designation (1178) of five professional judges from the Small Council as a permanent central court, extension of the transfer of judicial business to royal courts by the increase and specialization of royal writs (the fees a valuable source of revenue), formalization and regularization (c. 1166) of the itinerant justices (*justices in eyre*), the great source of the Common Law (a law universal in the realm). One of the judges, Glanvill, wrote the *Treatise on the*

Laws and Customs of the Kingdom of England, the first serious book on the Common Law revealing the formal influence of Roman Law, but English in substance. The itinerant judges were charged with cases dealing with crimes like murder, robbery (soon forgery and arson), and with financial business as well as judicial. (3) Expansion of the sworn inquest (probably of Roman origin, introduced into England by the Conqueror) statements by neighbors (freeholders) under oath in the shire courts (a) jury (12 members) of presentment in criminal cases (Assize of Clarendon, 1166), a process which expanded (after 1219), replacing the ordeal, and (b) the use of juries (recognition) instead of ordeal to determine landownership.

Reorganization of the exchequer. Nigel, Bishop of Ely (nephew of the original organizer, Roger of Salisbury), restored the exchequer to the general form of Henry I. Innovations in the raising of revenue: (a) *tallage*, levied by local negotiations (i.e. by the itinerant justices) with boroughs and tenants; (b) *hidage* (*carucage*) replaced the Danegeld; (c) *scutage*, levied by Henry I on the clergy, now extended to knights' fees in lieu of military service (due to Henry's need of non-feudal levies across the Channel); (d) *personal property taxes* (the first, 1166), Saladin tithe (1188), assessed by neighborhood juries. *The Dialogue of the Exchequer* written by one of the officials of the exchequer.

Extension of trade. German merchants well established in London (1157), large Italian business (wool), extensive development of domestic trade.

Foreign affairs: (1) Norman penetration of Wales since the Conquest bred a sporadic national resistance. Henry by three expeditions reduced Wales to nominal homage to the English crown. (2) Ireland, despite a brilliant native culture, was in political chaos under rival tribal kinglets and economically exhausted. Pope Adrian IV, hoping that Henry would reform the Church in Ireland, "gave" Ireland (1154) to Henry. Richard of Clare's (Strongbow) expedition (1169-1170) established a harsh rule. Henry landed (1171), temporarily reduced the rigors of the baronial administration, and reformed the Irish Church (Synod of Cashel, 1172). John Lackland (Henry's son) was appointed Lord of Ireland (1177), arrived (1185) but was soon recalled for incompetence.

Intrigues and revolts (beginning 1173) of Henry's sons, supported by their mother Eleanor, King Louis VII, and later Philip II of France, as well as by disgruntled local

The ruling class continued to speak French during this reign, but the establishment of primogeniture as applied to land inheritance insured that younger sons would mingle with the non-aristocratic sections of society and accelerate the fusion of Norman and native elements. Manor houses began to appear in increasing numbers as domestic peace continued. Numerous Cistercian houses spread new agricultural methods and especially improved wool-raising.

1189-1199. RICHARD I (*Cœur de Lion*)

Neither legislator, administrator, nor statesman, but the greatest of knights errant, an absentee ruler who spent less than a year of his reign in England, visiting his realm only twice, to raise money for continental ventures. Taxation was heavy. The government remained in the hands of ministers largely trained by Henry II, but there appeared a tendency toward a common antipathy of barons and people toward the crown. Richard (having taken the Cross, 1188) went on the Third Crusade with Frederick Barbarossa and Philip II, his most dangerous foe. On his return trip Richard was captured by Duke Leopold of Austria and turned over to the Emperor Henry VI, who held him for a staggering ransom. John and Philip bid for the prisoner, but Richard finally bought his freedom (1194) with a ransom raised partly by taxation in England. The crusade gave Englishmen their first taste of eastern adventure, but drew few except the adventurous portion of the baronage. The domestic reflection was a series of anti-Semitic outbreaks. John Lackland (despite his known character) was given charge of several counties, his plot against Richard was put down by Hubert Walter with the support of London. Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury and Justiciar (1194-1198), ruled England well, maintained the king's peace, and began a clear reliance on the support of the middle class in town and shire. Charters were granted towns (London received the right to elect its mayor)—and the knights of the shire were called on to assume a share of county business as a balance to the sheriffs. Knights (elected by the local gentry) served as coroners and chose the local juries, a departure looking to the day when local election and amateur justices of the peace would be the basis of government. The first known merchant guild, 1193.

1194-1199. Richard's continental struggle against Philip II, in which Richard more than held his own. Château Gaillard a new departure in castle architecture based on lessons, built by

Richard on the Seine, as an outpost against Philip

1199-1216 JOHN (*Lackland, Softsword*), cruel, mean, licentious, faithless, weak of will, without counterbalancing virtues. Crowned with the support of the Norman barons against his nephew Arthur's claims (by primogeniture), he became Arthur's guardian

1202-1204 John's first contest with Philip (to protect his French possessions) struggle over Brittany, Maine, Anjou (temporary acceptance of John's title by Philip, 1200) John's marriage to Isabella of Angoulême (already betrothed to his vassal Hugh of Lusignan), led Hugh to appeal to Philip II as their common overlord. John ignored Philip's summons to judgment (1202), his French fiefs were declared forfeit, and Philip began a war with rapid successes. The death of Arthur (1203), possibly by John's own hand, ruined John's cause, and Philip, already master of Anjou, Brittany, and Maine, took Normandy (1204) and soon Touraine. John's vassals in southern France (preferring an absent Angevin to an encroaching Capetian) resisted Philip's advance south of the Loire. John's loss of the lands north of the Loire reduced the power and prestige of the English crown, cut the Norman baronage in England from their French connections, and turned their interests back to the island, with decisive constitutional and social consequences

1205-1213. John's struggle with Pope Innocent III after a double election to the See of Canterbury, Innocent rejected both elections (including John's nominee) and named (1207) Stephen Langton, a noted scholar and theologian. John refused to accept Langton, confiscated the estates of the see, expelled the monks of Canterbury; Innocent laid an interdict on England (1208). John confiscated the property of the English clergy who obeyed Innocent's ban without arousing serious public opposition. Innocent excommunicated John (1209), but John, holding as hostages the children of some of the barons, weathered the storm. Innocent deposed John (1213) and authorized Philip II to execute the sentence. John, aware of treason and mounting hostility, promised indemnity to the clergy, did homage to the pope for England and Ireland, agreed to an annual tribute, and was freed of the ban.

1213-1214 Final contest with Philip II (to regain the lands north of the Loire): John's great coalition (including his nephew Emperor Otto IV and the Count

of Flanders) against Philip, most of the English baronage held aloof. Crushing defeat of the coalition at Bouvines (1214) ended all hope of regaining the lands north of the Loire (formal renunciation of English claims, 1259)

1215. MAGNA CARTA. The first politico-constitutional struggle in English history. In origin this struggle resulted from an effort of the feudal barons, supported by Archbishop Langton (notwithstanding papal support of John) and public opinion, to enforce their rights under their feudal contract with the king; it did not aim to destroy the monarchy or the royal administration. Preliminary demands of the barons (1213), John's concessions to the Church and negotiations with Pope Innocent, civil war. London opposed John (despite his liberal charter to the city). John's acceptance of the Great Charter at Runnymede. Magna Carta was essentially a feudal document, exacted by feudal barons from their lord but with national implications in its reforms: (1) concessions to the barons reform in the exaction of scutage, aid, and reliefs, in the administration of wardship and in the demands for feudal service, writs of summons to the Great Council to be sent individually to the great magnates, collectively proclaimed by the sheriffs to the lesser nobles (i.e. knights), (2) concessions to the agricultural and commercial classes. Mesne tenants granted the privileges of tenants-in-chief, uniform weights and measures, affirmation of the ancient liberties of London and other towns, limitation on royal seizure of private property, reform of the forest law, reform of the courts, (3) concessions to the Church (in addition to John's charter of 1214) promise of freedom and free elections.

The most significant provisions of the Great Charter: (1) Chapter 12 no scutage or aid (except for the traditional feudal three) to be levied without the consent of the Great Council, (2) Chapter 14 definition of the Great Council and its powers, (3) Chapter 39 "*No freeman shall be arrested and imprisoned, or dispossessed or outlawed, or banished, or in any way molested, nor will we set forth against him, nor send against him, unless by the lawful judgment of his peers and by the law of the land*." Even these clauses were feudal and specific in background, but centuries of experience transformed them into a generalized formula of constitutional procedure, making them the basis of the modern English constitution. At the time their chief significance lay in the assertion of the supremacy of law over the king. Careful provisions were made for the enforcement of the charter by

the barons even by force of arms but in practice such enforcement was impossible. The charter was repeatedly reissued by succeeding rulers. The pope, as John's feudal suzerain, declared the Great Charter void. Civil war followed, a Franco-English section of the barons called Louis, son of Philip II, to the throne (1216). John opportunely died, his young son Henry, with the support of the Anglophile barons, succeeded him, and Louis abandoned his pursuit of the crown (1217).

1216-1272. HENRY III (a boy of nine)

Guardianship (1216-1219) of William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, an able, patriotic régime: two reissues (1216, 1217) of the (modified) Great Charter, elimination of French influence and interference, opposition to papal encroachments, reduction of feudal castles. William Marshal had designated the pope as Henry's guardian, and the government passed on his death (1219) to the papal legate Pandulph, the justiciar Hubert de Burgh, and Peter des Roches, tutor to Henry. Arrival of the Dominicans (1220) and the Franciscans (1224). Henry's personal rule (1227-1258) was marked by a major constitutional crisis.

Growth of national consciousness. After a futile but expensive effort (1229) to recover Aquitaine, Henry, always devoted to the papacy, gave free reign to papal exactions. At the same time the increase of papal provisions filled the English Church with alien (usually absentee Italian) appointees, to the exclusion of natives. A bitter anti-papal outbreak (perhaps supported by De Burgh) drove De Burgh from office; Des Roches succeeded him (1232-1234), filling the civil offices with fellow Poitevins. Henry's French marriage increased the alien influx and public opinion grew bitter. The papal collector was driven out (1244), and the Great Council refused (1245) a grant for Henry's effort to recover Portugal, which failed. Henry's acceptance of the crown of Sicily from the pope for his second son Edmund (1254), and his permission to his brother, Richard of Cornwall, to seek election as emperor (1257), both costly ventures, added to public ill-feeling. Finally, in a period of great economic distress, Richard asked the Great Council for one-third of the revenue of England for the pope. This grant was refused and the barons set out to reform the government with public approval (1258). A committee of 24, representing king and barons equally, brought in a proposal,

1258. THE PROVISIONS OF OXFORD, a baronial effort to restore the

harmony with strong clerical and middle class support. Creation of a council of fifteen (containing a baronial majority) with a veto over the king's decisions, the Great Council to be superseded by a committee of twelve, meeting thrice a year with the permanent council of fifteen, the Chancellor, justiciar, and treasurer were to be chosen annually by the council. All officials including the king and his son, took an oath of loyalty to the Provisions.

1260-1264. The knights, alienated by the baronial oligarchy, appealed to Edward (Henry's eldest son). Gradually there emerged a group of progressive reformers (younger barons, many of the clergy and knights, townsmen, notably of London and Oxford), the more conservative barons turned to the king. Henry obtained papal release from his oath (1261) and replaced the council of fifteen with his own appointees, chaos was followed by civil war (1263). Papal exactions continued. Louis IX (asked to arbitrate the Provisions of Oxford), in the *Mare of Amiens* (1264), decided in favor of the king. This decision was rejected by London and the commercial towns, and civil war soon broke out.

1264. Simon de Montfort (son of Simon of the Albigensian crusade), Henry's brother-in-law, of French blood and education, a friend of Grosseseste, Bishop of Lincoln (a lifelong champion of ecclesiastical and governmental reform), emerged as leader of the reforming group. This group, ahead of its time, manifested strong religious fervor, and even traces of democratic ideas. Simon's victory at Lewes (1264), capture of Henry and exaction of the *Mare of Lewes* (a return to the reforms of 1258).

In the course of this reign the Great Council came to be called *Parliament* (c. 1240) and at various times knights of the shire were summoned to share in its deliberations. Parliament was still as much concerned with administration and justice as with 'legislation'; its membership, control of finance, and specific functions were by no means precisely defined. The summoning of the knights in effect merely transformed the negotiation of such business into a collective negotiation by the same men who managed it locally.

1265. De Montfort's parliament: two knights from each shire, and two burgesses from each borough were summoned, probably the first summons to townsmen in parliamentary history.

1265. Edward now leader of the baronial conservative opposition defeated

De Mor fort at Evesham (dea h of De Montfort)

Henry's return to power was formal, as Edward was the real ruler, and Edward and the barons were aware of the need of reform. Edward, on a crusade with Louis IX when Henry died, was proclaimed king while still absent, spent a year in Gascony on the way back and was not crowned until 1274.

1272-1307. EDWARD I (*Longshanks, the English Justinian*), an able ruler and a great legislator, fit to rank with Frederick II, Louis IX, and Alfonso the Wise. He observed his motto, *Pactum s. rova* (Keep troth) but tempered it with realism. The first truly English king, he surrounded himself with able ministers and lawyers. The reign was marked by a frequent consultation of the knights and townsmen, not always in Parliament. The institutions of the English state began to take shape.

EXTERNAL AFFAIRS-

1276-1284. Reduction of Wales. Wales during the reign of Henry III had gotten out of hand, and a national revival had set in (hardic poetry and tribal union under the Llewelyns around Snowdon in the north). Llewelyn, Prince of Wales, joined De Montfort's opposition, refused homage (1276), and, with his brother David, renewed war with the English (1282). Edward marched into Wales, killed Llewelyn and executed David (1283), asserting the full dominion of the English crown. In these wars Edward became aware of the efficiency of the Welsh longbow. Edward's fourth son Edward (later Edward II) was born at Carnarvon (1284), and with him began the customary title, Prince of Wales, bestowed on the heir to the English throne. Local government was organized in Wales, and the *Statute of Wales* settled the legal status of the newly disciplined Welsh.

1285-1307. Scotland. William the Lion had purchased freedom from homage to the English king from Richard I in 1189, but his successors continued to do homage for their English lands. The Scottish nobility were largely Normanized. Margaret, the *Maid of Norway* (daughter of Eric of Norway) was granddaughter and heir of King Alexander II of Scotland. After Alexander's death (1286), Edward arranged a marriage for her with the Prince of Wales (1290), but she died on her way to England and Edward's hope of a personal union of the two crowns vanished. There were three collateral claimants to the Scottish crown. John Balliol, Robert Bruce, John Hastings. Edward asked to arbitrate, demanded (1291) homage and acknowledgment of paramountcy from the Scots, which was

given (the commons protested). He awarded the crown to Balliol (1292), who did homage for Scotland. Edward's insistence on appellate jurisdiction alienated the Scots and disposed them toward France, and an alliance began (1295) which endured intermittently for 300 years. Edward invaded Scotland, defeated Balliol at Dunbar (1296), declared himself King of Scotland, received the homage of the nobles, took away the coronation stone of Scone. Oppressive administration by Edward's officials led to the rising of William Wallace (1297), who was supported by the gentry and commonalty, but got little aid at first from the nobles. Wallace won a victory at Stirling. Edward, using the longbow to open the way for a cavalry charge, defeated Wallace at Falkirk (1298), drove him into exile, and completed his second conquest of Scotland (1304). Wallace was taken (1305) and executed, and Scotland incorporated under the English crown. Scottish law was retained, Scottish representatives sat in Parliament but the nobles had to yield their fortresses, and an English lieutenant was sent to rule Scotland with a council and with power to amend the laws. Scottish nationalism found a leader in Robert Bruce (grandson of the claimant to the crown), who was crowned at Scone. Edward died (1307) on an expedition against Bruce.

1293-1303. France. Ill-feeling between sailors from the Cinque Ports (Sandwich, Dover, Romney, Hythe, Hastings, and [later] Rye and Winchelsea) and the French, culminated in a victory for the Anglo-Gascon fleet (1293) and Edward's summons to the court of his French overlord, King Philip IV. Under a *pro forma* compromise (1294), Edward turned over his Gascon fortresses to Philip, who refused to return them, and declared Gascony forfeited. Futile expeditions of Edward (1294, 1296, and 1297, in alliance with the Count of Flanders) against Philip. Philip, busy with his contest against Boniface VIII and other matters, returned Gascony to Edward (1303).

DOMESTIC AFFAIRS:

1290. Expulsion of the Jews: Hitherto the Jews had been protected by the kings, as they were important sources of loans. By this time public opinion was hostile to the Jews, and the Italian houses, like the Bardi and Peruzzi, were ready to finance royal loans. Foreign trade, like banking, was in the hands of foreigners, and there were few native merchants, except for wool export, where Englishmen did about 35 per cent of the business. Italians 24 per cent. The English

wool sales as established in Antwerp under Edward.

1296. The clash with Pope Boniface VIII.

Winchelsey, Archbishop of Canterbury, in accordance with the bull *Clericus laicos*, led the clergy in refusing a grant to the crown. Edward, with the general support of public opinion, withdrew the protection of the royal courts, and thus promptly brought the clergy to an evasion of the bull through "presents" to the crown, the lands of recalcitrant clergy were confiscated, the pope soon modified his stand, and the victory of Edward was complete.

Institutional and "legislative" developments. (1) The Parliament of 1275 granted (hitherto permission had not been asked) an increase of the export duty on wool and leather to the king to meet the rising cost of government. (2) Distract of knighthood. Various enactments (beginning in 1278) to insure that all men with a given income (e.g. £20 a year from land) should assume the duties of knighthood. Probably primarily an effort to raise money, the acts also ensured a militia under royal control. (3) *Statute of Gloucester* (1278), providing for *quo warranta* inquests into the right of feudal magnates to hold public (i.e. not manorial) courts. (4) *Statute of religious* (Statute of Mortmain, 1279), forbade gifts of land to the clergy without consent of the overlord (a usual policy elsewhere in Europe). Such consent was often given; the statute frequently evaded. (5) *Second Statute of Westminster* (*De donis conditionalibus*, 1285) perpetuated feudal entail (i.e. conditional grants of lands), and led to the later law of trusts. It also reorganized the militia and provided for care of the roads. (6) *The Statute of Westminster* (*Quia emptores*, 1290) forbade new sub-infeudations of land. Land could be freely transferred, but the new vassal must hold direct of the king or from a tenant-in-chief.

1295. The Model Parliament. The writs of summons included (probably by accident) the famous phrase, *quod omnes tangit ab omnibus approbetur* (let that which toucheth all be approved by all). Bishops, abbots, earls, barons, knights, burgesses, and representatives of the chapters and parishes were summoned. The clergy did not long continue to attend Parliament, preferring their own assembly (*Convocation*) and left only the great prelates, who sat rather as feudal than ecclesiastical persons.

1297. The Confirmation of Charters (*Confirmatio cartarum*), a document almost as important as *Magna Carta*, extorted by a coalition of the barons (angered by taxation and the Gascon expedition) and

the middle classes (irritated by mounting taxes) under the leadership of Archbishop Winchelsey. In effect the Confirmation included *Magna Carta* (and other charters) with the added provision that no non-feudal levy could be laid by the crown without a parliamentary grant. Edward left the actual granting of this concession to his son Edward as regent and Pope Clement V later dispensed Edward from the promise in exchange for the right to collect (for the first time) annates in England. Edward did not surrender tallage, despite the so-called statute *de tallagio non concedendo*.

1303. The *carta mercatorum* granted the merchants full freedom of trade and safe conduct, in return for a new schedule of customs dues.

1305. The petition from the barons and commonalty of the Parliament of Carlisle to end papal encroachments, notably in provisions and annates. Edward enforced the petition except in the matter of annates.

The reign is remarkable for frequent consultation of the middle class (in Parliament and out), for the encouragement of petition to Parliament (now one of its chief functions), and for frequent meetings of Parliament, which educated the nation not merely in the elements of self-government but in ideas, and kept the crown in close contact with public opinion. The word *statute* as used of this reign means any formal royal regulation intended to be permanent, and does not imply formal parliamentary enactment.

Judicial developments. Under Edward the differentiation of the great common law courts is clear: (1) Court of King's Bench (concerned with criminal and crown cases), (2) Court of Exchequer (dealing with royal finance), (3) Court of Common Pleas (handling cases between subjects). The King's Council (Small Council) still remained supreme as a court by virtue of its residual and appellate jurisdiction, and the councillors were expected to take the chancellor's oath to the king. Edward began the practice of referring residual cases which did not readily come within the jurisdiction of the common law courts to the chancellor with a committee of assessors from the council. This chancellor's court tended to absorb the judicial business of the council and finally emerged as a court of equity. The *Year Books*, unofficial, verbatim reports in French (the language of the courts) of legal proceedings, a record unique for completeness in the period, began in this reign. Coherence and continuity of tradition among the lawyers was greatly facilitated by the

establishment of the Inns of Court under the three Edwards. Here the lawyers assembled their libraries, lodged, and studied transmitting with increasing strength the living force of the Common Law, to the virtual exclusion of Roman Law.

PROGRESS OF ENGLISH CULTURE

Architecture: Early English Gothic (under French influence) Canterbury, begun 1175, Lincoln, 1185-1200; Salisbury, 1220-1258. Decorated Gothic. Choir of Lincoln, 1255-1280, York, west front, 1261-1324.

Painting and minor arts: St. Albans at the opening of the 13th century was the greatest artistic center in Europe (manuscript painting by Matthew Paris). The court of Henry III was a mecca for European craftsmen, especially Frenchmen.

Literature: Orm's *Ornamentum* (early 13th century), a translation into English of portions of the Gospels; the *Ancren Riwle*, rules for the ascetic life tinged with the cult of the Virgin (c. 1200); *Layamon's Brut*, an English verse translation of Wace's *Brut*. Political songs and satires of the Barons' War, etc. (e.g. *Song of the Battle of Lewes*; the *Husbandman's Complaint*). Matthew Paris (c. 1200-1259), a friend of Henry III, monk of St. Albans, in his compilation, the *Historia Major*, covered the history of the world, but in the portion dealing with the years 1235-1259 produced a work of original research in which he glorified England and things English.

Foundation of Cambridge University (1209). **Foundation of University College** (1249). **Balliol** (1261); **Merton** (1264) began the collegiate system of Oxford.

Science and learning: Bartholomew Anglicus (c. 1230), *On the Properties of Things*, a popular encyclopedia influenced by Pliny and Isidore, combining accurate observation (e.g. the domestic cat) with discussion of the fantastic (e.g. the griffin).

The English Franciscans at Oxford. Robert Grosseteste (d. 1253), Bishop of Lincoln: insistence on the study of the sources (the Fathers and the Bible), knew Greek and Hebrew, a precursor of the Christian humanists, student of philosophy, mathematics, astronomy, physics, teacher of Roger Bacon. Roger Bacon (d. 1292), greatest mediaeval exponent of observation and experiment. Foresaw the application of mediaeval power to transport, including flying, "formula" for gunpowder, author of the *Opus Majus* and *Opus Minus*.

Opponents of the Thomist rationalists: Duns Scotus (c. 1270-1308) and William of Occam (c. 1300-1349). (*Cont.* p. 264.)

(2) Scotland, 1034-1304

1034-1286 Racial and political turmoil. Duncan I was followed by his murderer, the usurper

1040-1057. Macbeth, and his son and avenger

1059-1093. MALCOLM CANMORE. Malcolm was forced to do some kind of homage by William the Conqueror (1072) and by William Rufus (1091), and Anglo-Norman penetration began. Malcolm's wife, (Saint) Margaret (sister of Edgar Aetheling, grand-niece of Edward the Confessor), was a masterful and remarkable woman whose Anglicizing influence on Scottish culture, on the national life and the native Church was profound. Her three sons, especially

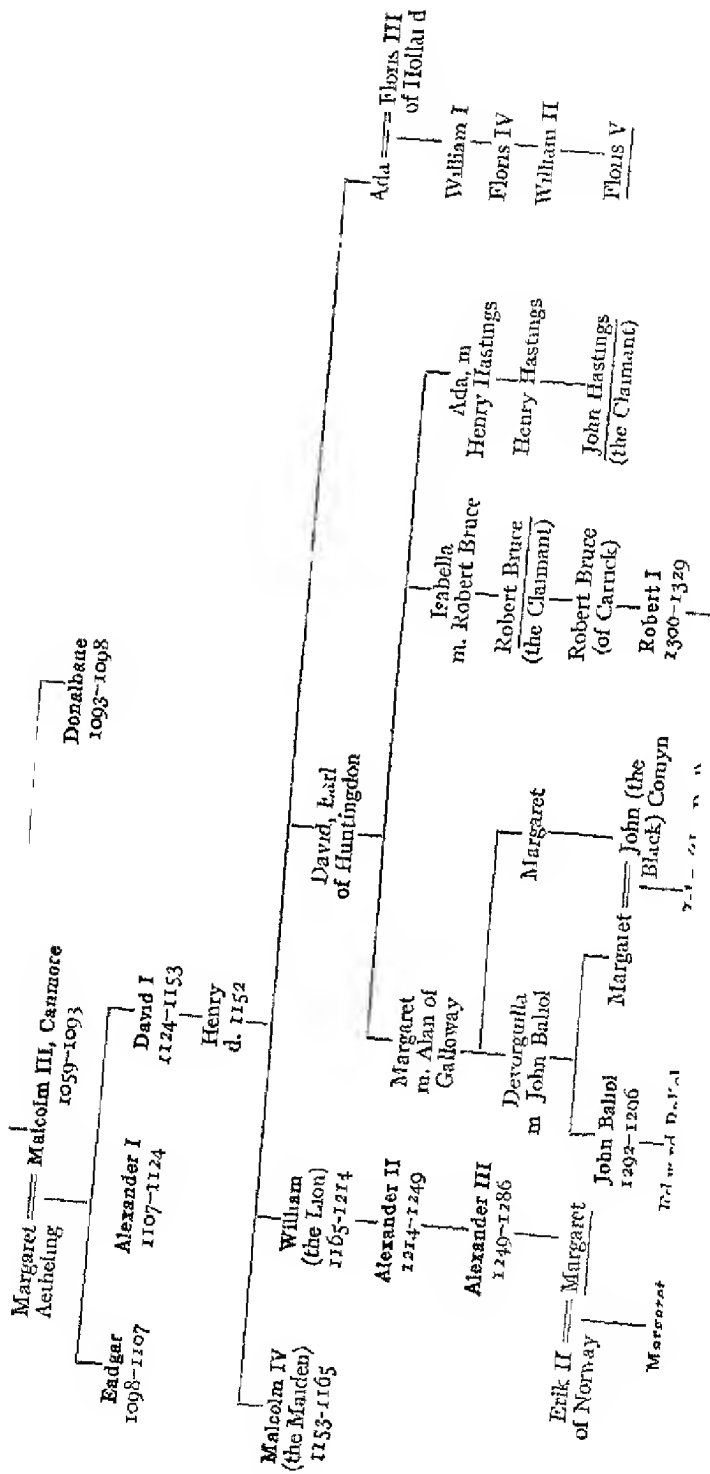
1124-1153. DAVID I. continued the so-called "bloodless Norman conquest," and the new Anglo-Norman aristocracy (e.g. Baliols, Bruces, Lindsays, Fitz Alans, i.e. Stewarts) became the bulwark of the crown.

1153-1286. The next four reigns were notable for the consolidation of Scotland, and for signs of impending collision with the English monarchy. William the Lion, captured in 1174 by the English, accepted (1174) the feudal lordship of the English crown and did ceremonial allegiance at York (1175). Richard I weakened England's position, John tried to restore

it.
1249-1286. ALEXANDER III did homage (1278) to the English king for his English lands, "reserving" his Scottish fealty. All of Alexander's issue were dead by 1284, leaving only his granddaughter Margaret, the *Maid of Norway*. Margaret's death (1290) made impossible the personal union of England and Scotland (by Margaret's marriage to Edward I's heir). Thirteen claimants to the Scottish crown were narrowed down to the candidacy of Robert Bruce and John Balliol. Edward I of England, called upon to arbitrate, awarded the crown to Balliol (1292), but when Balliol ignored a summons to attend Edward and instead embarked upon an alliance with France (1295), the English invaded the country and, after some years of warfare, reduced it in 1304 (p. 199). (*Cont.* p. 272.)

(3) Ireland, 1171-1307

The period following the expedition of Henry II (1171) was marked by a steadily developing conflict between the feudal system of the incoming Normans and the



old tribal organization of the Irish. In its later phases this struggle bred centuries of discord and bloodshed. Henry's authority was precariously maintained by a viceroy who had orders to be fair to the natives, a policy which estranged the Norman elements.

1185. Henry's son, John Lackland, returned to England after a short and inglorious rule as Lord of Ireland, but his authority was maintained by his representative, William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, who married the daughter of Richard of Clare.

1213. John abandoned Ireland, along with England, to Pope Innocent III.

1216-1272. Under Henry III the power and possessions of the Anglo-Norman colony expanded rapidly. Bridges and castles were built, towns prospered and guilds were formed.

1272-1307. Edward I's revolutionary legislation in England was extended to Ireland, which continued to prosper, at least in the Anglo-Norman sections. But the cleavage between the two races had become very marked and the native clans remained restive. (Cont. p. 272)

b. SCANDINAVIA

(1) Denmark, 950-1320

c. 950-985. HAROLD BLUETOOTH, whose reign saw a steady advance of Christianity and expansion of Danish power over Schleswig, the Oder mouth, and Norway. But the kingship was of little importance until the reign of

985-1014. SVEN I (Forked-beard). He defeated the Norwegians, Swedes, and Wends and conquered England (1013).

1014-1035. KNUT THE GREAT (Canute), Sven's son, was King of Denmark, Norway (1028), and England (1016-1035), the first "northern empire." Knut's conversion completed the conversion of his people. He imported priests, architects, and artisans from his English realm, and new influences spread from Denmark to Norway and Sweden. On his death Norway broke away, England passed to Edward the Confessor.

1157-1182. Under **WALDEMAR THE GREAT**, the founder of the Waldemarian dynasty, a great expansion eastward took place at the expense of the Wends. Copenhagen was established as the capital.

1182-1202. KNUT VI made conquests in (Slavonic) Mecklenburg and Pomerania.

1202-1241. WALDEMAR II (the Conqueror) led crusading expeditions into Livonia, Estonia (Reval founded), and penetrated the Gulf of Finland, making the southern Baltic a Danish lake (the second "northern empire"). This empire collapsed in 1223, and the advance was in fact more in the nature of a crusade than of permanent imperial expansion. The monarchy was now dominant, the nobles largely feudalized, the clergy (with royal grants) powerful, the bourgeoisie vigorous (fisheries and cattle-raising), the yeoman class strong and independent.

1241-1250. ERIC FLOWPENNY, whose reign was taken up with civil war against his brothers Christopher and

1250-1252. ABEL, who was supported by his brother-in-law, the Count of Holstein, and also by the Swedes and by the city of Lübeck.

1252-1259. CHRISTOPHER. His effort to tax the Church opened a struggle that lasted nearly a century.

1259-1266. ERIC (V) GLIPPING. He was forced by the nobility to sign a charter, the Danish Magna Carta (1282), recognizing the national assembly and initiating the subordination of the king to the law. He continued the contest with the clergy, fought against dynastic rivals, planned expansion in Mecklenburg and Pomerania, and lost Scania and North Halland to Sweden.

1266-1320. ERIC (VI) MENVED, during whose reign the conflict between the crown and the Church came to a head. By a compromise (1303) the rights of the Church were guaranteed, but the king's right to levy military service on church lands was upheld. (Cont. p. 310)

(2) Sweden, 993-1319

The origins of the Swedish kingship are obscure, but the kingdom may be dated back to the union of Gothia and Svealand (prior to 836). The conversion of the country to Christianity took place in the 9th century and

993-1024. OLAF SKUTKONUNG was the first Christian ruler. He was the son of Eric the Conqueror, the founder of the Northern Kingdom, and brought to Sweden many Anglo-Saxon workers. His wars with St. Olaf of Norway led to some conquests, which were soon lost. The century following his death was marked by wars between the Goths and the Swedes and by what appear to have been religious conflicts.

1134-1150 **SVERKER** Amalgamation of the Swedes and Goths with alternation of rulers from the two peoples (an arrangement which continued for a century). The monarchy gradually became established on a firm basis and the progress of Christianity was marked by the foundation of many bishoprics (including Uppsala, 1163). The first monasteries also belong to this period.

1150-1160 **ERIC IX** (*the Saint*), whose reign was a short golden age. He led a crusade into Finland, the first real expansion of Sweden. The line of St. Eric came to an end with

1223-1250 **ERIC LAESPE**, whose reign was dominated by his brother-in-law, Jarl (i.e. Earl) Birger Magnusson, the greatest statesman of mediaeval Sweden. He controlled the government from 1243-1266 and had his son elected king in 1250, thus founding the Folkung line.

1250-1275 **WALDEMAR**. As regent, Jarl Birger abolished judicial ordeal by fire, ended serfdom by choice, encouraged commerce, favored the settlement of German artisans, checked the power of the baronage. He attempted to introduce typical European feudalism, setting up his other sons in quasi-independent duchies.

1279-1290 **MAGNUS LADULOS**, who had dethroned and imprisoned his brother Waldemar. Magnus continued his father's feudal innovations, extended the powers of the clergy and set up an hereditary nobility. Town charters became numerous as the burghers became prosperous through trade and mining.

1290-1319 **BIRGER** (son of Magnus). His rule was chaotic, due to civil war with his brothers, whom Birger ultimately captured and executed. This led to a popular uprising and the expulsion of Birger, who was followed by his three-year-old nephew.

(*Cont. p. 312*)

(3) Norway, 872-1319

Norway was a region with little natural unity, which in the earlier mediaeval period was ruled by numerous petty kings.

872-930 **HAROLD HAARFAGER** (*Fair-hair*) began the unification of the country by deposing many of the chieftains (traditionally including Hrolf or Rollo). It was in this period that the Norsemen supposedly made their conquests in Iceland, the Faroes, Shetlands, Orkneys, Hebrides, Scotland, and Ireland.

935-961 **HAAKON THE GOOD**, who attempted, prematurely, to convert the country to Christianity.

995-1000 **OLAF I, TRYGVESSON**, who, with the aid of English clergy, converted Norway, Iceland, and Greenland. He was defeated by the Kings of Denmark and Sweden, who supported the Norwegian nobility. There followed a period of feudal disruption.

1016-1028 **OLAF II** (*St. Olaf*) reunited the country and established Christianity on a firm footing.

1046-1066 **HARALD (III) HARDRADA**, who was defeated by King Harold of England in the battle of Stamford Bridge (1066). There followed another period of confusion, marked by constant wars of succession, and by a struggle against the growing power of the clergy. Nevertheless the expansion of trade brought increasing prosperity.

1184-1202 **SVERRE**. He was able to maintain a strong monarchy in the face of aristocratic and clerical opposition, thanks to support from the small landowners. Nevertheless Norway continued to be troubled with dynastic conflict.

1223-1262 **HAAKON IV**, a strong king, who temporarily restored order, conquered Iceland, but was defeated in a war with Scotland.

1263-1299 **ERIK THE PRIEST-KATER**, whose reign was marked by a war with the Hansa towns, in which he suffered a reverse. As a result he was obliged to grant the towns full privileges in Norway and to join the Hanseatic League.

1299-1319 **HAAKON V**, marking the culmination of decline of the royal power.

The crown in Scandinavia depended on its vassals for soldiers and for administration. The introduction of cavalry (first recorded in Denmark, 1134) accentuated this feudal tendency, and a new nobility emerged. This nobility was a professional military class always ready for war, exempt from taxes, and quickly became a governing class receiving local offices and lands as a reward for military services. From Denmark this new society spread to Norway and Sweden. Henceforth the nobles added a further complication to dynastic wars, causing a series of crises and retarding the normal evolution of royal power.

German capital and German merchants began to penetrate Scandinavia, achieving by the second half of the 13th century a dominating position. The growth of the Hanseatic League delayed the progress of the native bourgeoisie, but commerce led to the active growth of towns and town life. Population was increasing rapidly, lands were cleared, the arts were advancing in distinction and perfection under the

patronage of wealthy kings and prosperous prelates.

The heroic age of the Icelandic *skalds* (court poets) in the 10th and 11th centuries brought the art to an involved perfection and a concentration on war that ultimately killed it. Meantime the kings, interested in politics as well as war (notably Sverre of Norway, c. 1185) began to patronize the Norwegian story-tellers, particularly the Icelanders, and the Sagas emerged. The greatest master of the new form was an Icelandic, Snorri Sturluson (1179-1241), an active political figure in both Iceland and Norway. Snorri's *Younger Edda* in prose and verse, containing the rules of versification, the old myths, and a collection of ancient Icelandic poems, is unique. History was written by Saxo Grammaticus (died c. 1208), whose *Historia Danica* is the chief source for the Hamlet story. Both Snorri and Saxo were preoccupied with the ideals of national unity, strong royal power, and resistance to baronial particularism.

(Cont. p. 312)

c. GERMANY UNDER THE SALIAN AND HOHENSTAUFEN EMPERORS, 1024-1268

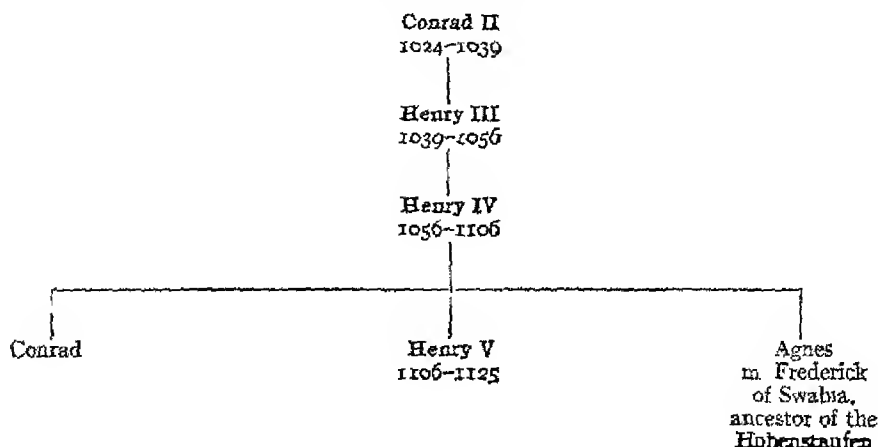
1024-1125. THE FRANCONIAN (or Salian) HOUSE. Dawn of the great imperial age.

1024-1039 CONRAD II (the Salian) He continued the general policy of Henry personally interested only in the churches of Limburg and Speyer, he was firm in his dealings with the Church in general and relied on the lesser nobles to

balance the clergy and magnates. The *ministeriales*, laymen of humble or even servile origin, were used to replace the clergy in many administrative posts; regalian rights were retained and exploited. Dukedoms were not regranted as they fell vacant, but were assigned to Conrad's son Henry, who on his accession to the crown held all but the duchies of Lorraine and Saxony. By encouraging the making of fiefs heritable Conrad weakened the dukes and got the support of the lesser nobles, but insured the ultimate feudalization of Germany. Conrad's imperial coronation (1027), one of the most brilliant in mediæval Rome, was witnessed by two kings, Canute the Great and Rudolf III of Burgundy. Burgundy, willed to Conrad by Rudolf III, guardian of one road to Italy, was reincorporated (1033) in the empire on the death of Rudolf. Failure of an expedition (1030) against Stephen of Hungary, successful disciplinary expedition (1031) against the Poles, recovery of Lusatia; payment of homage by the Poles.

1039-1056. HENRY III (the Black) Imperial authority at its height. A period of great town prosperity, due to development of trade. His wife, Agnes of Poitou, was an ardent devotee of Cluny, Henry, an honest reformer, abandoned simony, purified the court along Cluniac lines, but retained a firm hold on the Church. Strongest of the German emperors, he asserted his mastery in Poland, Bohemia, and Hungary, Saxony was the only duchy to keep a trace of its original independence; resumption of the dangerous practice of granting duchies outside the royal house made Germany a feudal vol-

The Salian Emperors



hesitated three days and finally accepted the appeals of the Countess Matilda and Abbot Hugh of Cluny (Henry's godfather), accepted Henry's promises and solemn oaths of contrition and absolved him. The penance at Canossa is hardly mentioned by contemporaries, and made much less impression in Germany than the excommunication, the chief source on the episode is Gregory's letter of justification to the disappointed German nobles. Gregory, after some months of waiting for a safe conduct into Germany, turned back.

1077. A faction of the nobles elected an anti-king, Rudolph of Swabia, with the approval of Gregory's legates, but without papal confirmation.

1077-1080. Civil war ensued, but Henry, loyally supported by the towns, gained strength steadily. Rudolph of Swabia was defeated and killed (1080). Gregory again excommunicated and deposed Henry, but a synod of German and North Italian prelates then deposed Gregory, naming as his successor Gihbert of Ravenna, a reforming bishop and former friend of Gregory (1080).

1083. Henry, at the end of a series of expeditions to Italy (1081-1082), besieged Rome, after futile efforts at reconciliation he gained entrance to the city and Gregory called in his Norman allies. Henry, crowned at Rome by his anti-pope, invaded Apulia. Robert Guiscard expelled him from Rome and sacked (1084) the city. The horrors of the Norman sack made it impossible for Gregory to remain in Rome and he departed with his allies, dying as then "guest" in Salerno (1085). The papal position was justified by Manegold of Lautenbach's theory that an evil ruler violates a contract with his subjects and may therefore be deposed by the pope, who is responsible for the salvation of mankind. Henry's advocate, Peter Crassus, based his denial of this right on historical precedent backed by citations of Justinian (one of the earliest examples of such quotations).

1093-1106. Gregory's successors, unbending champions of reform, supported the revolts of Henry's sons in Germany and Italy. Conrad (1093), and the future Henry V (1104) Henry was elected king but his father retained the loyalty of the towns to the end. Henry V shamefully entrapped and imprisoned his father, who abdicated, escaped, and was regaining ground when he died.

1106-1125 HENRY V (married to Matilda, daughter of Henry I of England in 1114). A brutal, resourceful, treacherous ruler, Henry continued his father's policies.

Skilfully pretending to be dependent on the princes he continued lay investiture, opposed papal interference in Germany, and retained the support of the lay and clerical princes, meantime, relying on the towns and *ministers*, he built up the nucleus of a strong power. Wars against Hungary, Poland, and Bohemia (1108-1110).

1110-1111. Imposing expedition to Italy to secure the imperial crown, universally supported in Germany. In Italy the Lombard towns (except Milan) and even the Countess Matilda yielded to Henry. Pope Paschal II (1099-1118) offered to renounce all feudal and secular holdings of the Church (except those of the See of Rome) in return for the concession of free elections and the abandonment of lay investiture, a papal humiliation more than equal to the imperial mortification at Canossa. At Henry's coronation the clergy repudiated Paschal's renunciation, there was a scuffle. Henry took the pope and cardinals prisoners, and forced the pope to acknowledge the imperial powers. The net result was nil, but papal prestige was badly damaged.

1114-1115. A series of revolts (Lorraine, along the lower Rhine, in Westphalia, and soon in East Saxony and Thuringia). Henry was saved by the loyalty of the South Germans.

1115. Matilda, Countess of Tuscany, who had made over all her vast holdings to the papacy, retaining them as fiefs with free right of disposition, willed these lands to Henry on her death, and Henry arrived in Italy to claim them (1116-1118).

Both pope and emperor were weary of the investiture controversy, Europe was preoccupied with the Crusades (p. 255), and the time was ripe for compromise. The first important compromise negotiated by the pope was with Henry I of England (1107) and provided that the king should not invest with the spiritual symbols (the ring and the staff), but that he was to be present or represented at all elections. After due homage the king should then invest with the symbols of temporal authority. In France a similar compromise was reached in practice with Philip I (c. 1103). Pope Calixtus II convinced Henry that neither Henry of England nor Philip of France had suffered by their compromise.

1122. At the Synod of Worms, under the presidency of a papal legate, the Concordat of Worms was drawn up in two documents of three brief sentences each which provided that (1) elections in Germany were to be in the presence of the emperor or his representative, without

mony or election on the event of a sa-see ment the emperor as to decide, the emperor was to invest with the temporalities before the spiritual investiture; (2) in Italy and Burgundy consecration was to follow within six months of election, the emperor to invest with the *regalia* after homage. This concordat ended the investiture struggle, but not the bitter rivalry of pope and emperor, for the papacy, now clearly the independent spiritual leader of Europe, could not long tolerate an imperial rival.

1125. Henry left no direct heir, and at the bitterly fought election of 1125 the Archbishops of Mainz and Cologne, foes of the anti-clerical Salian line, cleverly prevented, with papal aid, the election of the nearest heir, Frederick of Swabia, of the House of Hohenstaufen, on the ground that the hereditary principle was dangerous, and Lothair of Supplinburg, Duke of Saxony, was chosen, opening the great struggle of Welt and Waiblinger (Hohenstaufen) in Germany (Guelf and Ghibelline in Italy).

1125-1137. LOTHAIR II. Elected by the support of the clergy, he remained loyal to the Church, was the first German king to ask papal approval of his election and did not exercise his rights under the Concordat of Worms for some years. Bitter civil war against the Hohenstaufens (1125-1135), vigorous policy of German expansion among the Wends and Scandinavians, renewal of Wendish conversions (1127).

1133. Influenced by Bernard of Clairvaux, Lothair decided in favor of Pope Innocent II (against Anacletus II) and went to Italy to settle the papal schism, he was crowned, had the Concordat of Worms confirmed, and received the lands of Matilia as fiefs.

1135. The "year of pacification" in Germany—general peace proclaimed. In 1135, in order to create a vast empire in-law, the Welt Henry the Proud, to include Bavaria, Swabia, Saxony, the allodial lands and fiefs of Matilda of Tuscany, and to secure him the imperial crown. Lothair died suddenly on his return from an expedition against King Roger II of Sicily, and in the election (1138) the clergy, led by Adalbert of Treves, had the Waiblinger, Conrad of Hohenstaufen, chosen. Conrad almost at once put Henry the Proud under the ban, gave Saxony to Albert the Bear, Bavaria to Leopold of Austria, his half-brother, and reopened the civil war.

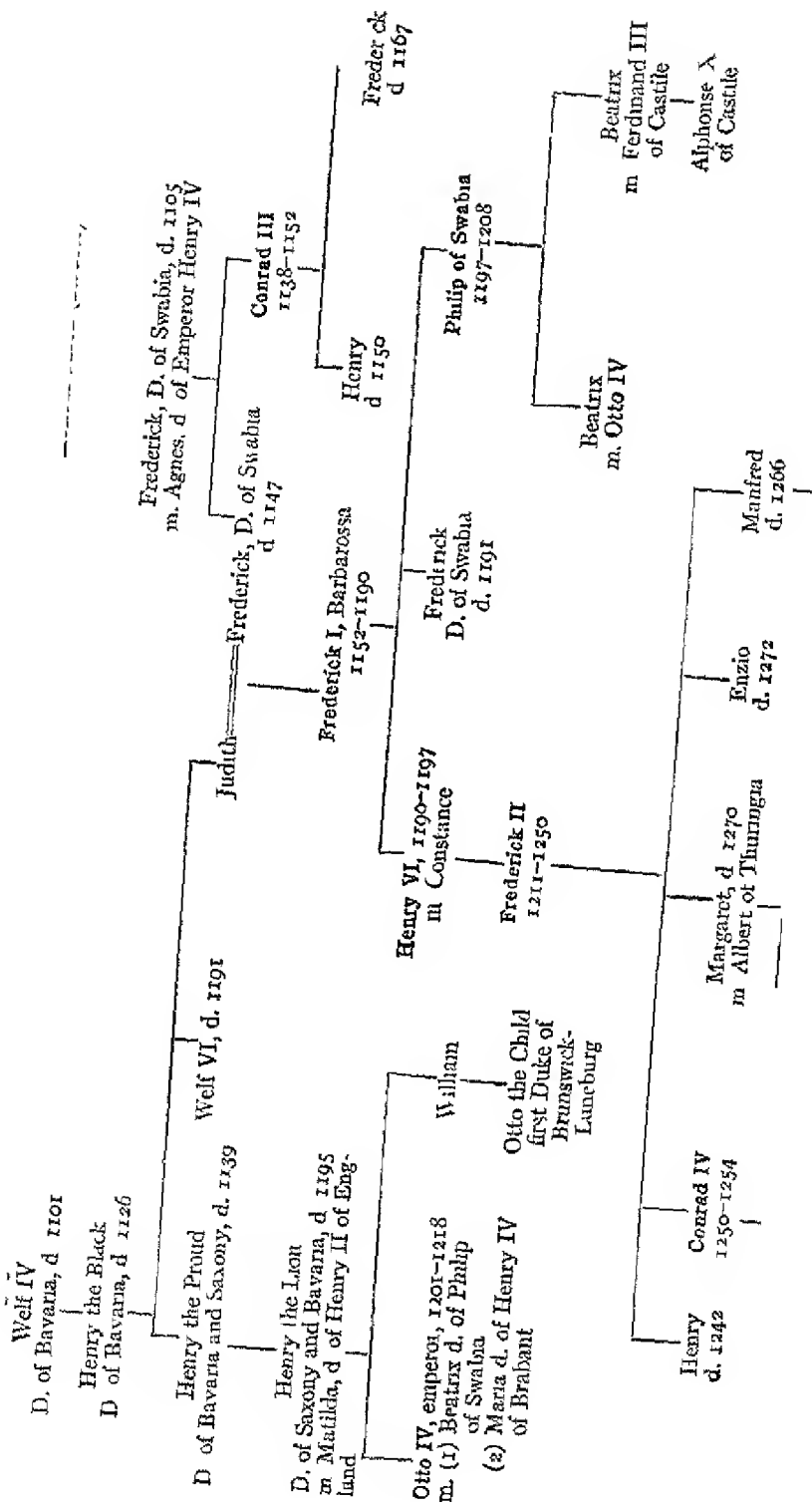
1138-1268. THE HOUSE OF HOHENSTAUFEN (from Staufen, their

Swabian castle). The first German dynasty to be conscious of the full historical implications of the imperial tradition and the significance of Roman law for imperial pretensions. Their consequent devotion to a policy of centralization and to the aggrandizement of the lay imperial power in the face of the new spiritual supremacy and political aspirations of the Papacy precipitated a second great struggle between the popes and the emperors centering in Italy but turning upon a sharp conflict between rival spiritual and political concepts.

1138-1152. CONRAD III. a gallant, knightly, attractive, popular hero, but no statesman. The Welt, Henry the Lion (son and successor of Henry the Proud), acknowledged Conrad's title, but regained Saxony by force and was granted it by the peace (1142), the struggle of Welt and Waiblinger reduced Germany to chaos and Conrad left on the Second Crusade. On his return Conrad found Germany in worse confusion.

The most significant development of the reign was the renewal or expansion against the Slavs and Scandinavians (chiefly on the initiative of Albert the Bear and Henry the Lion): a regularly authorized German crusade against the Slavs (1147), colonization of eastern Holstein, foundation of Lubeck (1143), conversion of Brandenburg and Pomerania. Albert the Bear began to style himself Margrave of Brandenburg, Henry the Lion began the creation of a principality east of the Elbe. Conrad took no share in these developments, was the only king since Henry the Fowler not to attain the imperial title. Alienated from the Church toward the end of his life, Conrad was preparing a more vigorous assertion of the imperial position, and supported the strong imperialist Frederick of Swabia, his nephew, as candidate for the throne. On Conrad's death anarchy was so prevalent in Germany that even the magnates favored a strong ruler, and Conrad's candidate, Frederick, Duke of Swabia, was unanimously elected.

1152-1190. FREDERICK I (Barbarossa, i.e. Red Beard), a handsome man with flowing golden hair, who could both frighten and charm, the embodiment of the ideal mediaeval German king. A close student of history and surrounded with Roman legists, he regarded himself as heir to the tradition of Constantine, Justinian, and Charlemagne (whom he had canonized by his anti-pope) and aimed at restoring the glories of the Roman Empire. He began the style *Holy Roman Emperor*.



Policy of consolidation and expansion of royal lands. Burgundian lands regained by marriage (1136) with Beatrice, heiress of the County of Burgundy; purchase of lands from the Welfs in Swabia and Italy, exploitation of regalian rights.

Consolidation of the magnates: (1) Henry the Lion, recognized as virtually independent beyond the Elbe, confirmed in Saxony, re-granted Bavaria (1156). (2) Austria made an independent duchy (1156), granted to Henry of Austria in return for Bavaria. (3) Alliance with the episcopate free exercise of rights under the Concordat of Worms; reforming bishops replaced with hard-headed appointees of the old school, loyal to the crown. Administration delegated to the *ministeriales*. Successful maintenance of public order; Frederick won the title *pacificus*.

Expeditions to Italy (p. 219, seq.) (1) 1154-1155; (2) 1158-1162, (3) 1163-1164, (4) 1166-1168; (5) 1174-1177, (6) 1184-1186

1156-1180. Henry the Lion's "principality" beyond the Elbe: military progress against the Slavs and colonization (Hollanders, Danes, Flemings); Bremen taken from the archbishop (1156), Lubeck from Adolph of Holstein (1158), commercial relations with Denmark, Sweden, Norway. Alliance with Waldemar II of Denmark, reduction of Slavic pirates, colonization of Mecklenburg, extension of Christianity; war with Albert the Bear; refusal of aid to Frederick in Italy (1176); confiscation of Henry's holdings and exile (1180), dismemberment of Saxony.

1156. Diet of Ratisbon: emergence of the prince electors as a substantive body in the German state.

1157. Diet of Besançon: emissaries from Rome, France, England, the Spanish princes, Apulia, Tuscany, Venice and the Lombard towns did honor to Frederick. Frederick saved the hue of the papal legate, Cardinal Roland, whose statement of papal claims enraged the German nobles (translation of *beneficia* as "fiefs"). Boleslav, Duke of Bohemia, granted the style of "king" (1158).

1174-1177. Frederick's fifth expedition to Italy: vain siege of Alessandria, futile efforts at reconciliation with the pope.

1176. LEGNANO: decisive defeat of Frederick by the Lombard League, the first major defeat of feudal cavalry by infantry, herald of the new rôle of the bourgeoisie.

1183. Final peace of Constance between Frederick, the pope, and the Lombard towns. restoration of all imperial con-

fiscations during the papal schism confirmed, recognition of general imperial suzerainty in Italy; the Lombard towns virtually autonomous city-states under a loose administration by imperial legates and vicars. Frederick retained the Matildan lands without a specific definition of their status. Henceforth there was no shadow of unity in the empire, as Germany and Italy followed a divergent development.

1184. Great Diet of Mainz: a tremendous mediaeval pageant for the knight- ing of Frederick's two sons in the presence of a great concourse, 70 (?) princes, 70,000 (?) knights.

1186. Marriage of the future Henry VI to Constance (daughter of Roger II of Sicily), heiress of King William II, possibly arranged in the hope of permanent peace with the empire. The net result of the marriage was the transfer of the center of gravity in the struggle between the popes and the emperors to Sicily, the final destruction of German unity and the ruin of the house of Hohenstaufen. The pope refused imperial coronation to Henry.

1186. Triple coronation at Milan: Frederick as King of Burgundy, Henry as *Cæsar* (a deliberate revival of the title), and Constance as Queen of the Germans.

1186. Frederick took the Cross, and until his death led the Third Crusade (p. 256) in the traditional rôle of the emperor as the knightly champion of Christendom.

1190-1197. HENRY VI (already *Cæsar* and regent, crowned emperor, 1191). The Mediaeval Empire at its maximum, ideally and territorially. Henry was not robust, and lacked the usual Hohenstaufen good nature. A good soldier, learned, practical, a shrewd diplomat, stern, cruel, but of heroic and original mind.

1190-1195. Intermittent struggles with the Welfs in Germany under Henry the Lion.

1191-1194. Restoration of order in Sicily: struggle with the Norman anti-king, Tancred of Lecce (d. 1194); coronation of Henry as King of Sicily (1194); birth of Frederick (later Frederick II) at Jesi (1194).

1192-1194. Henry used the captivity of King Richard I of England to make the crown of England a fief of the empire, and to extort an enormous ransom.

Henry's plans to unite the German and Sicilian crowns, and to crown Frederick without election, thereby establishing the heredity of the German crown, were blocked.

by powerful German and papal opposition Frederick was elected King of the Romans (1196). Plans (traditional with the Norman Kings of Sicily) for the foundations of a Mediterranean empire on the ruins of the Byzantine Empire as the basis for a universal dominion, dynastic marriage with the Greek imperial house, active preparations for a crusade, advance in central Italy and conciliation of northern Italy. Sicilian outbreak against the German administration brutally crushed. Henry's sudden death was followed by a bitter anti-imperial reaction in Italy, by fourteen years of civil war in Germany.

1197-1212. Civil war in Germany, chaos in the empire. Rival kings, Henry's brother, the Waiblinger Philip of Swabia (supported by King Philip II of France) and the Welf Otto of Brunswick, son of Henry the Lion (supported by King Richard I of England). The German nobles played one side off against the other. Chaos in Sicily, where Pope Innocent III acted as guardian of Frederick (after 1198). Otto's title validated by Innocent (1201); assassination of Philip (1208), imperial coronation of Otto (1209), papal break with Otto (1210) and support of Frederick (with Philip II), Frederick's second election (1211) and dash to Germany.

1211-1250 **FREDERICK II** (*Stupor Mundi*), a valetudinarian of middle height, courteous, amiable, charming, pitiless, arrogant; the most brilliant ruler and one of the most learned men of his day, a legislator of the first order, able soldier, diplomat, skeptic, one of the leading scientific investigators of his time; an astrologer with the mind of a Renaissance rationalist; Sicilian by taste and training, half Norman by blood, with little of the German about him. Crowned King of the Romans, 1212, King of the Germans, at Aachen, 1215, Emperor, at Rome, 1220.

1212. Alliance with King Philip II of France.

1213. The Golden Bull of Eger: Frederick, who had already sworn an oath to keep his two crowns separate and to support the pope, abandoned the German Church to Innocent (conceding the free election of bishops, the right of appeal to Rome) and undertook to support the pope against heretics.

1214. The battle of Bouvines (p. 230): Frederick and Philip II completed the defeat of Otto and the Welfs. On the death of Innocent III (1216) Frederick's personal rule may be said to have begun.

1216-1227. Frederick on tolerable terms with Pope Honorius III, his old

tutor: election (1220) of Frederick's son Henry as King of the Romans (a violation of Frederick's promise); Frederick allowed to retain Sicily during his lifetime, renewal of his crusading oath, grant of generous privileges (1220) to the clergy, exemption of the Church from taxation and of clerics from lay jurisdiction, making clerical princes virtually independent territorial princes, support of the bishops against the towns; promises to suppress heresy. Crusade postponed until 1225.

1222. First appearance of the Mongols in Europe (p. 260), capture of Cracow (1241), defeat of the Hungarians and Silesians.

1226. The conversion of Prussia undertaken by the Teutonic Order (p. 214).

1226-1232. Renewal of the ancient imperial claims in Lombardy, formation of the Second Lombard League, and appearance of the First League of the Rhineland; town leagues in central Italy; Pope Gregory alienated.

1227-1229. Frederick's crusade (p. 257): return of Frederick due to illness; first excommunication (1227); resumption of crusade (1228), violent papal and imperial propaganda and recrimination, the Teutonic Knights under Hermann of Salza remained faithful to Frederick. Aware of the commercial value of Moslem friendship Frederick negotiated a ten-year truce (1229) with El-Kamil, Sultan of Egypt, which restored Jerusalem, Nazareth, and Bethlehem to Christian hands. Frederick crowned himself King of Jerusalem. Papal war (1228-1229) of devastation in Apulia (first known papal mercenaries, the *soldiers of the keys*); Frederick on his return expelled the papal forces and threatened the *Patrium Petri* with invasion.

1230. Hollow peace of San Germano with Pope Gregory IX: Frederick promised to protect the papal domains, confirmed papal rights over Sicily, and was absolved. In preparation for the next struggle Frederick concentrated on Italy, especially Sicily. Frederick's son Henry on his majority (1228) devoted himself to Germany, and favored the towns. Frederick, like Barbarossa, had leaned heavily on the German episcopate, especially Engelbert of Cologne, and had increased the independence of the lay princes and *ministeriales*, administrative offices tended to become hereditary, and after Engelbert's death (1225) the administration had become less efficient. Settlement of the Teutonic Knights in Prussia: union (1237) with the Livonian Brothers of the Sword and eastward expansion, foundation of

Thoen (122) Kumm (1232) and Marconwerder (1233)

1231. Privilege of Worms. Hoping for German support for his Italian policy, Frederick extended to the lay princes his generous grants of 1220 to the clergy, giving them control over local justice, minting rights, roads, and streams, etc. From this grant dates a clear emergence in Germany of the territorial sovereignty of both lay and clerical princes. The Decree of Ravenna (1232) allowed expansion of the power of the princes at the expense of the towns. Henry objected, revolted (1234), and tried to win the German and Italian towns to his side.

1231. Completion of the reorganization of Sicily. clean sweep of private titles and royal privileges in the Norman manner; resumption of royal domain; destruction of private garrisons and feudal castles, ban on private war, criminal jurisdiction transferred from feudal to royal courts; towns deprived of magistrates and put under royal officers, clergy taxed and excluded from civil office. Sicily reduced to order (1221-1225): feudal revolts put down, towns brought to heel, large Saracen garrison-colonies (loyal to Frederick and indifferent to papal threats) established at Lucera and Nocera. Recognizing in Sicily the true source of his strength in money and men, Frederick aimed to unify Sicily and Italy into a kingdom of the empire. Local risings (1223-1230 and 1232) in Apulia and Sicily, unrest (1234) in southern Italy.

1231. The Constitutions of Melfi, the most conspicuous and constructive single piece of "legislation" in the Middle Ages, completed the Sicilian reorganization: an efficient divine right absolutism (much of it a return to the policy of Roger II) profoundly influenced by Roman law; centralization under an expert departmentalized bureaucracy, clerical jurisdiction limited to ecclesiastical matters, heresy a civil crime, simony in civil office a capital offense, gift or sale of Church land forbidden. Feudal, clerical, and municipal administration replaced by royal officials, supreme court at Capua, justices on annual circuits, careful financial organization. The University of Naples (the first European university on a royal charter) founded (1224) to train state officials, and given a monopoly of higher education; Salerno revived as a school of medicine.

Advanced economic policy in Sicily based on Arab practice: abolition of internal tolls, mercantilistic regulation, state monopolies. Replacement of feudal dues by fixed payments; direct taxation in crises,

efficient customs collection and internal prosperity.

1235-1237. Frederick's last visit to Germany: deposition, arrest, and imprisonment of Henry, who committed suicide in prison (1242) and was succeeded by his brother Conrad (1237); conciliation and peace with the Welts strengthened Frederick in Germany. Great reform Diet of Mainz (the German Melfi, 1235), issue of the model *Landfrieden*. Frederick was unable to stem the steady progress of towns (resting on expanding commerce) in Germany or Italy.

1237. Frederick at Cortenuova smashed the Second Lombard League and humiliated Milan.

1239. Pope Gregory's second excommunication of Frederick, followed by a tremendous battle of pamphlets and preaching. Frederick painted as a heretic, rake, anti-Christ. He retorted with a demand for reform of the Church and an appeal to the princes of Europe, proposing a league of monarchs against the papacy. Beginning of the amalgamation of northern and central Italy with the imperial administration on Sicilian lines: a system of general vicariates under imperial vicars, each city with an imperial *poderà* (generally Apulians, and often relatives of Frederick).

1241. Gregory's call for a synod at Rome to depose Frederick: Frederick ravaged papal territory, almost took Rome, and his fleet captured a large delegation of prelates off Genoa on their way to the synod; annexation of papal Tuscany to the empire. Gregory's death (1241). During the two-year interregnum in the papacy Frederick intrigued for a friendly pope, and welcomed.

1243. The election of Sinibaldo Fiesco (Innocent IV), who turned out to be the architect of his ruin.

1244. Frederick's invasion of the Campagna and vain efforts at reconciliation with the pope. Innocent's flight to Lyons, and call for a synod.

1245. The Synod of Lyons. appeal to the Germans to revolt and elect a new king; deposition of Frederick; Louis IX's efforts at conciliation and Frederick's offers rebuffed by the pope. Innocent unleashed the Franciscans and Dominicans in a war of propaganda and proclaimed a crusade against Frederick. Henry Raspe, Duke of Thuringia (d. 1247), was set up (1246) as an anti-king in Germany, followed by

1247-1256. William of Holland, who was supported by a newly formed

league of Rhenish towns. Innocent's ruthless but vain campaign against Frederick's episcopal allies in Germany, bitter warfare in northern Italy with extreme cruelty on both sides, Italian conspiracy to assassinate Frederick (probably with Innocent's knowledge) put down in cold blood, Piero della Vigne, Frederick's most trusted official, supposedly implicated. He was arrested, blinded, and died a suicide (1240), capture of Frederick's son Enzo (1249) who died in prison (1272).

1248 The defeat of Frederick after a long siege of Parma did not destroy his hold on northern Italy.

1250 Sudden death of Frederick; burial in the cathedral at Palermo, where his sarcophagus still remains.

1250-1268. Relentless persecution of the Hohenstaufens by the popes.

1250-1254. CONRAD IV, emperor, and King of Sicily by the will of his father, Frederick, Manfred, his illegitimate half-brother, regent of Sicily, Pope Innocent IV's offer (1253) of the Sicilian crown under papal suzerainty to Edmund (son of Henry III of England), renewal of Conrad's excommunication and proclamation of a crusade against him, papal invasion of the kingdom (i.e., southern Italy and Sicily).

1254-1273. THE GREAT INTERREGNUM. An epilogue to the mediaeval struggle of the popes and the emperors, marks the end of the mediaeval Holy Roman Empire and the failure of imperial efforts to establish German unity, it was a prologue to the complete triumph of particularism which dominated German life until well into the 19th century.

1255-1261. Manfred regained southern Italy (1255) and Sicily (1256). was crowned King of Sicily (1258), and after the Sienese (Ghibelline) victory over Florence at Montapertio (1260) almost dominated Italy, Alexander V's peace offers were rejected by Manfred (1261).

1257. Double election in Germany of two foreigners Richard of Cornwall (brother of Henry III of England, brother-in-law of Frederick II), and Alfonso X of Castile.

1266. Charles of Anjou (brother of Louis IX of France), accepting Urban IV's offer (1262) of the Sicilian crown under papal suzerainty, invaded southern Italy in accordance with papal plans and with his own ambitions to create a Mediterranean empire. He defeated Manfred who fell in the battle (Benevento, 1266) ending any hope of a native ruler for Italy.

1268. Conradin (Conrad IV's son, aged

15), called from Germany by the Italian Ghibellines, was defeated at Tagliacozzo, betrayed to Charles of Anjou, and beheaded at Naples with, at least, the tacit approval of Pope Clement IV. European public opinion was shocked, and Henry III of England and Louis IX of France were aroused. The heir of the house of Hohenstaufen was Constance, daughter of Manfred, whose husband, Pedro III of Aragon, was destined to become the first Aragonese king of Sicily (1282-1285) (p. 282).

The imperial title remained (1268-1802) an appendage of the German monarchy, but as the Germans were little interested in the title the way to the imperial throne was opened to ambitious foreigners. The bitter struggle of the Hohenstaufens and the popes, followed by removal of the papacy to French soil, alienated the German people from the Roman popes and bred a lasting suspicion of the Latin Church that bore fruit in the nationalism of the Reformation.

The princes of Germany, busy consolidating their own power, were not eager to elect a king, and there was no election until Pope Gregory X, alarmed at the progress of Charles of Anjou and the degeneration of Germany, which reduced papal revenue and indirectly strengthened France, and needing an imperial leader for the crusades, threatened to name an emperor.

SIGNIFICANT ELEMENTS IN 13TH-CENTURY GERMANY:

I Great tenants-in-chief: (1) Four ancient princely houses the Ascanians (Brandenburg and eastern Saxony with the ducal title), the Welfs (Brunswick), the Wittelsbachs (Upper Bavaria, the County Palatine of the Rhine, Lower Bavaria), the Wettins (Saxony after the 15th century), (2) Ottokar, King of the Slav Kingdom of Bohemia (1253-1278), with claims to Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola.

II Great ecclesiastical tenants-in-chief: especially in the Rhineland (notably the Archbishops of Mainz, Trier, and Cologne).

III Three minor houses about to emerge into importance: (1) Luxemburgs, (2) Hapsburgs, (3) Hohenzollerns.

IV Lesser tenants-in-chief (the so-called *Ritterschaft*), who regarded the central power as their defense against the great princes.

V Imperial cities (*Reichsstädte*), growing richer and more powerful and disposed to support the crown against the princes.

Tender y of he c es o organize as leagues

The informal (until the 14th century) constitution of the German monarchy: (1) Election of the king (originally by tribal chieftains) devolved upon the tenants-in-chief, then upon a group of them; election to be followed by ratification by the others. In the 13th century the group election became final election and was confined to a body of seven electors (of varying personnel).

(2) The ancient feudal *Reichstag* (*curia regis*) became (in the 13th century) the German *Diet* (equivalent to Parliament or the Estates-General) divided into two houses: princes and electors. Its functions remained vague and amorphous. Towns were admitted in 1439.

The great ecclesiastical states of the Rhineland and their feudal satellites reached the zenith of their power in the 13th century and strove to maintain their position in the face of the rising lay states to the east (Saxony, Brandenburg, Austria, and Bohemia) by electing to the monarchy feeble princes who could pay well for election and would remain amenable. The lay states became dynastic principalities primarily concerned with their own fortunes and anti-clerical in policy. (*Cont.* p. 299.)

The Teutonic Knights

1190-1191. Crusading origin. Merchants of Lubeck and Bremen founded a hospital at Acre which soon became attached to the German church of Mary the Virgin in Jerusalem.

1198. The brethren of this hospital were raised to a military order of knighthood (as the *Order of the Knights of the Hospital of St. Mary of the Teutons in Jerusalem*) by the Germans gathered for Henry VI's crusade. Henceforth membership in the order was open only to Germans, and knighthood only to nobles. Pope Innocent III gave them the rule of the Templars. Headquarters were successively at Acre (1191-1291), Venice, and (after 1309) Marienburg, clear evidence of the new orientation of the Knights. Intense rivalry existed between the order and the Templars and Hospitalers in the Holy Land until the failure of the Crusades turned them to other fields of action. The robes of the Teutonic Knights were white with a black cross.

Reconstitution of the order and transfer to the eastern frontier of Germany. The eastward advance (*Drang nach Osten*) of the Germans, begun under Charlemagne, had never wholly ceased, and colonization with Netherlandish farmers and German mer-

chants coupled with Cistercian efforts during the days of Adolf of Holstein, Albert the Bear (self-styled Margrave of Brandenburg), and Henry the Lion of Saxony established the Germans firmly in Mecklenburg and Brandenburg. Lubeck (founded 1143) early became an important commercial center. The foundation of Riga (1201), as a crusading and missionary center, the establishment of the *Livonian Brothers of the Sword*, and an influx of Westphalian nobles and peasant immigrants insured the continued advance of Germanization and the progress of Christianity (largely under Cistercian auspices) in Livonia. The defeat of the Danes at Bornhöved (1227) by the combined princes of North Germany, east of Holstein, Lubeck, Mecklenburg, and Pomerania, leaving only Estonia to Denmark. The Poles had already begun the conversion of the Prussians and East Pomeranians.

1210-1229. Under HERMANN VON SALZA, the first great grand master, the order, at the invitation of Andrew of Hungary, was established (1211-1224) in Transylvania as a bulwark against the Cumans (Cumani) until their progress alarmed the Hungarian monarch.

Hermann was an intimate friend of Emperor Frederick II, and was the real founder of the greatness and prosperity of the (still relatively poor and insignificant) order.

1226. By the Golden Bull of Rimini, Frederick laid down the organization of the order (on Sicilian lines) and prepared the Knights for a new career as pioneers of Germanization and as Christian missionaries on the eastern frontier. Frederick repeatedly made them generous gifts, used them for his own crusade, and employed individual knights on important missions. The grand master was given the status of a prince of the empire.

Organization of the order. Districts, each under a commander; a general chapter, acting as advisers to the grand master, five chief officers, the grand master elected for life by the Knights. The order was nominally under the pope and the emperor, but in the days of its might only strong popes exerted any influence.

1229. The call to Prussia. (The name *Prussia* is probably derived from a native word *Prusai* and not from *Bo-Russia*.) An appeal (1225-1226) from Conrad of Masovia, Duke of Poland, for aid, coinciding with Frederick's reorganization, was accepted by Hermann of Salza, and the Knights embarked on a unique crusade comparable only with that in the Iberian Peninsula, as champions of Chris-

an y and Germanism Conrad gave them Kulmerland, and promised them whatever they conquered from the Prussians. Frederick confirmed their rights.

1234 The Knights transferred all their holdings to the pope, receiving them back as fiefs of the Church and thus had no other lord than the distant papacy.

1237 Union with the Livonian Brothers was followed by notable progress in Livonia and plans for the conversion of the Russians from the Greek Church to the Roman, which led to a serious defeat for the order. Courland was also gained and Memel rounded (1252) to hold the conquests. Eventually the southern Baltic coast from the Elbe to Finland was opened by the order to the missions of the Church and the trade and colonies of the Germans.

A great era of town foundations (some 80 in all) opened under the order: Thorn (castle, 1231), Kulm (castle, 1232), Marienburg (1233), Elbing (castle, 1237), Memel (1252), Königsberg (1254), *et al.*

1242-1253. A Prussian revolt was put down, and the conquest of Prussia continued with aid from Ottokar of Bohemia, Rudolf of Hapsburg, Otto of Brandenburg.

1260. The battle of Durben, a disastrous defeat of the order by the Lithuanians, was followed by another Prussian revolt which had national aspects and was put down with Polish aid. The suppression was marked by deliberate extermination and the virtually complete Germanization of Prussia ensued. The order's castle at Königsberg was built (1266) and the order's power was completed (1263).

* The order allowed great freedom to the towns (especially after 1233); no tolls were collected, only customs dues. The large commercial towns joined the Hanseatic League (p. 307). The Knights were also generous (after 1236) in charters to German (and Polish) nobles, the peasants were well treated, and mass migrations into territories of the Knights became common.

1263. The pope granted the order permission to trade, not for profit, a concession later expanded (by devious means) into full commercial freedom. As a result the order, founded as a semi-monastic crusading society, eventually became a military and commercial corporation of great wealth and selfish aims, and a serious competitor of the very towns it had founded. The Knights escaped the fate of the Templars, though temporarily on the defensive.

Great state was kept at the headquarters in Marienburg, and under Grand Master Winrich (1351-1382) the order was the school of northern chivalry, just as later it became a great cultural influence through the foundation of schools everywhere in its domains and the maintenance of its houses as centers of learning. (*Cont p 310*)

d. ITALY AND THE PAPACY, 888-1314

The papacy was a local and secular institution until 1048, Italy was without effective native rule.

888-924. Berengar I, last of the phantom "emperors" (vacancy in the empire, 924-962), was the grandson of Louis the Pious. Surviving rival "emperors" were Guido of Spoleto, Lambert his son, and Louis of Provence, who was crowned emperor in 915. Raids of Saracens (c. 880) and Magyars (c. 908) into Lombardy; a Saracen stronghold at Freinet controlled the Alpine passes; Saracen settlements in southern Italy; and the Moslem conquest (827) of Sicily began the isolation of that area. Italian urban life had become almost extinct; the invasions were checked, not by the shadowy monarchs, but by the rise of feudal defenders.

914-963. The nadir of the papacy (the *persecution*) the landed aristocracy of Rome, under the leadership of the Senator Theophylact, his wife Theodora, and his daughter Marozia (mistress of Pope Sergius III, and mother of Sergius' son John, later Pope John X) dominated the Curia.

928. Marozia, having imprisoned Pope John XI, took control of Rome until her son.

932-954. Alberic II assumed power; the *Papal Interdict* (Patriarch of Venice) was a plaything of the Crescenzi (Marozia's family), who maintained an intermittent supremacy in Rome during the 10th century. The papacy was without political power or spiritual prestige and the Western Church for all practical purposes became a loose organism under its bishops, who gave "national churches" such coherence as they had, and acknowledged a vague kind of allegiance to Rome.

924. Rudolf of (Jura) Burgundy elected king, followed by

926-945. Hugh of Provence.

945. Lothar II (d. 950), Hugh's son and co-regent, was declared sole king, Lothar's rival.

- 950-961** Berenga II imprisoned his widow Adelheid, who appealed (according to tradition) to Otto the Great.
- 961-962.** Otto the Great's first expedition to Italy
- 961-964** Otto's second expedition to Italy, in answer to the appeal of the profligate pope, John XII, for protection against Berengar. Otto's coronation at Pavia as King of Italy and his coronation by the pope as Roman Emperor, marked the
- 962. REVIVAL OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.** Otto confirmed his predecessors' grants in the *Patrimonium Petri* (probably with additions), but made careful reservation of the imperial right to sanction papal elections, and treated the pope like a German bishop (i.e. subject to the state). Otto also exacted a promise from the Romans not to elect a pope without imperial consent. He established a precedent by calling a synod at Rome which deposed (963) Pope John XII for murder and other crimes, and selected a (lay) successor, Leo VIII (963-964). This synod opened a period of about a hundred years when the papacy was dominated by the German emperors and by the Counts of Tusculum, vassals of the emperors with the title of *patricius* in Rome. In the same period the bishops in the west lost the position they had won in the 9th century, and became increasingly dependent on the kings and feudal nobility, and increasingly secular in outlook. The homage of Pandolf I for Capua and Benevento (967) and his investiture with the Duchy of Spoleto, mark the beginning of the long imperial effort to include southern Italy in the empire.
- 964.** Leo VIII was expelled by the Romans shortly after his election, and Benedict V was (964-965) elected by the Romans without imperial consent.
- 966-972.** Otto's third expedition to Italy: Otto held a synod which deposed Benedict. Pope John XIII (elected with imperial co-operation) was soon expelled by the Romans, and Otto, after a terrible vengeance on Rome, restored him. Imperial coronation of the future Otto II (967) by John XIII coronation of Theophano and her marriage to Otto in Rome (972).
- 980-982.** Otto II's expedition to Italy: Otto crushed Crescentius I, Duke of the Romans, restored the pope (981), and was utterly defeated in his effort to expel the Saracens from southern Italy by a Greco-Moslem alliance (982). Otto nominated Pope John XIV (983-984).
- 983** Great Diet of Verona remarkable unity of the Italian and German magnates; resolve on a holy war against the Moslems, election of the future Otto III as successor to his father. Venice, already profiting by her Moslem trade, refused ships and defied the emperor.
- 996.** Otto III, on his first expedition to Italy deposed the *Papianus*, Crescentius II, and (at the request of the Roman people) nominated as pope his cousin Bruno, Gregory V (996-999), the first German pope, an ardent Cluniac. Gregory and Otto compelled Gerbert to yield the Arch-bishopric of Reims to the German Arnulf, and forced the French episcopate to acquiesce. Gregory censured King Robert of France. As the successor to Pope Gregory, Otto named Gerbert of Aurillac.
- 999-1003.** SYLVESTER II (Gerbert of Aurillac), the first French pope, a man of humble origin, one of the most learned men of his day (Arabic, mathematics, and science). An intriguer and diplomat who co-operated with Otto in his mystic renewal of the empire; he was a moderate reformer, asserting that simony was the worst evil of the Church.
- 1012-1046** The Tusculan popes were either the relatives or the creatures of the Counts of Tusculum. Benedict VIII (1012-1024), something of a reformer, John XIX (1024-1032), his brother, and Benedict IX (1033-1044), a debauchee who sold the papacy for cash (i.e. the Peter's Pence from England) to his godfather, a priest, Gregory VI (1044-1046) who bought the See of Peter in order to reform it. The emperors, preoccupied with German affairs, made only rare visits to Italy.
- Notable local efforts were made by the Church to reform itself and society:
- (1) Local synods decreed clerical celibacy (e.g. Augsburg, 952, Poitiers, 1000, Selgenstadt, 1023, Bourges, 1031), and attacked simony.
 - (2) Foundation (910) of the Abbey of Cluny by Wilham the Pious, Duke of Aquitaine, as a reformed Benedictine house, wholly free of feudal control, directly under the Holy See. Centralization of all daughter and affiliated houses (priories) under a single Abbot of Cluny; rapid spread of Cluniac organization (France, Lorraine, Germany) and ideas of reform into western Europe; celibacy of the clergy, abolition of lay investiture; and of simony.
 - (3) Gerard, Lord of Brogne, founded (923) a monastery on his own estate which became a center of ecclesiastical reforms among existing foundations in Flanders and Lorraine.
 - (4) Synods in Aquitaine and B

where monarchical opposition to feudal anarchy was weak) pronounced (c. 989) anathema on ravagers of the Church and despoilers of the poor, initiating a long series of clerical efforts throughout Europe to force feudal self-regulation, which go by the name of the *Peace of God*. These decrees, repeatedly renewed and extended, were supplemented (after c. 1040) by the *Truce of God*, an effort to limit fighting to certain days and seasons of the year.

(5) An effort to restore the central authority of the Church by reference to past decrees, of which the most notable were the so-called *Isidorean* (or *Forged*) *Decretals*, attributed to Isidorus Mercator, and produced (c. 850) by a Frankish cleric. A combination of authentic and forged papal decrees they aimed to establish the authority and power of the bishops and the position of the pope as supreme lawgiver and judge, and to make him supreme over councils.

(6) Notable increase in new ascetic orders in Italy and monastic schools north and south of the Alps, outstanding individual reformers (e.g. Peter Damian, d. 1072, Lanfranc, d. 1089, Anselm, d. 1109).

ITALY AT THE OPENING OF THE 11TH CENTURY: Sicily was in the hands of the Saracens, Apulia and Calabria under the feeble rule of Constantinople, Gaeta, Naples, Amalfi, were city republics, Benevento, Capua, and Salerno the capitals of Lombard principalities. Norman pilgrims arriving (1016) at the shrine of St. Michael on Monte Gargano began the penetration of the south by Norman soldiers of fortune in the service of rival states. The first permanent Norman establishment was at Aversa (c. 1029), the sons of the Norman *Warchief* of Hauteville (including Robert Guiscard) appeared (after c. 1035), and their steady advance at the expense of the Greeks led Benevento to appeal for papal protection (1071). Feudal anarchy prevailed in the north.

1027 Conrad II, in Italy for his coronation, restored order in the north, reducing the Lombard nobles.

1037. On a second expedition he disciplined Archbishop Ambert of Milan, restored order in the south, his *constitutio de feudis* made Italian fiefs hereditary.

1044-1046. GREGORY VI purchased the papal throne to reform the papacy, but the end of his reign saw three rival popes (Gregory, Sylvester III, and Benedict IX). All three were deposed by the Synods of Sutri and of Rome (1046) under pressure from the reforming emperor, Henry III, who made Suidgar Bishop of Bamberg,

pope as Clement II (1046-1047), the first of a series of German pontiffs: Damasus II (1048), Leo IX (1048-1054), Victor II (1055-1057), representing strong Cluniac influences. Henry pacified southern Italy, reaffirmed the imperial right of nomination to the papacy, and left Italy in sound order.

1049-1055. Restoration of the independence of the papacy, resumption of papal leadership in the Church and of spiritual supremacy in the west.

1049-1054. LEO IX (Bruno of Toul, a kinsman of Henry III) began the identification of the papacy with Cluniac reforms, and the restoration of the spiritual primacy of the Holy See. He insisted on his own canonical election to the papal throne, reorganized the chancery on the imperial model, reformed the Church by personal or legatine visitation, giving reform reality in the west. The Synod of Rome (1047) had issued stern decrees against simony and clerical marriage.

1052. Henry III granted the Duchy of Benevento to the papacy.

1053. Leo, in his personal effort to enforce papal rights in the south, was utterly defeated by the Normans at Civitate.

1054. The long doctrinal controversy with the Greek Orthodox Church, which really hinged on fundamental divergences between east and west, ended with the final schism between the eastern (Orthodox) and western (Roman) Church (p. 249).

1054-1057. VICTOR II. Elected at the urging of Hildebrand (later Gregory VII), who dominated this pontificate and the following one and who made the papacy the leader in reform. Beatrice, mother of Matilda, and widow of Count Boniface of Tuscany, married (1054) Godfrey the Bearded, Duke of Upper Lorraine, Henry's most dangerous foe in Germany as Boniface had been in Italy. Henry arrested Beatrice and her daughter Matilda, Boniface's heiress; Godfrey fled, Matilda remained all her life a powerful ally of the papacy, and kept middle Italy loyal to the popes.

1057-1058. STEPHEN IX (brother of Godfrey the Bearded), a zealous Cluniac. The *Pataria* (c. 1056), a popular movement (the result of a preaching campaign), gained wide currency in the Milan region for its demands of clerical celibacy, the end of simony and for apostolic simplicity among the clergy. It came into sharp conflict with the bishop and clergy. Peter Damian, sent by the pope, maintained the papal position (c. 1059 and

brought the archbishop to terms, there was a later outbreak of the Pataria.

1058-1061. NICHOLAS II.

1059. The Synod of the Lateran, by its electoral decree, replaced the vague traditional rights of the Roman clergy in papal elections by an electoral college of cardinals, the prerogative voice in the election went to the seven cardinal bishops; the cardinal clergy represented the clergy and people at large, a Roman prelate (if worthy) was to be preferred, the election to be at Rome if possible. Henry's rights were provided for, but the provision seems to have been personal rather than general.

1059. Under Hildebrand's influence an alliance was made with the Norman, Richard of Aversa, and Nicholas after exacting an oath later invested Robert Guiscard with the Duchy of Apulia and Calabria, and promised him Sicily if he could conquer it, thereby establishing papal suzerainty over southern Italy, the first great expansion of temporal suzerainty by the popes. The Synod of Melfi condemned (1059) the marriage of clergy.

1061-1073. ALEXANDER II. His election without consultation of Henry IV created serious tension; the Synod of Basel declared the election invalid, and chose an anti-pope Alexander, on friendly terms with William the Conqueror, blessed the Norman conquest of England.

1071. Robert Guiscard (d 1085) captured Bari, ending the Greek power in Italy, his capture of Palermo (1072) began the

1072-1091. Norman conquest of Sicily Roger I (d 1101) succeeded Guiscard as lord of southern Italy (except Capua, Amalfi, and papal Benevento).

1073-1085. GREGORY VII (Hildebrand)
Short, corpulent, with glittering eyes, the son of an Italian peasant educated at Rome under strong Cluniac influence. Inspired by Gregory the Great, Gregory VI, and the study of the Decretals, he was neither an original thinker nor a scholar, but was intensely practical and of lofty moral stature. After a brilliant career in the Curia he was acclaimed pope by the Romans before his election. German bishops protested the election, and Gregory postponed his consecration, awaiting Henry's decision in a sincere effort to live up to his ideal of perfect co-operation between pope and emperor in the interest of peace, reform, and the universal monarchy of the papacy. His program was summed up by his *Dictatus* in an informal memorandum which asserted (The Church has never

erred, can never err, (2) the pope is supreme judge, may be judged by none, and there is no appeal from him, (3) no synod may be called a general one without his order, (4) he may depose, transfer, reinstate bishops; (5) he alone is entitled to the homage of all princes, (6) he alone may depose an emperor

1075-1122. THE INVESTITURE STRUGGLE. vindication of the spiritual supremacy and leadership of the papacy (p 206).

The Emperor Henry IV after his Saxon victory forgot his promises of reform in Germany. The Synod of Rome (1075) passed severe decrees against simony, clerical marriage, and (for the first time) against lay investiture, providing deposition for clerical offenders, excommunication for laymen. Gregory's letter of remonstrance and rebuke to Henry was ignored, and Henry, on the urging of the German bishops, called a Synod at Worms (1076). This synod deposed Gregory. Henry's first excommunication and the so-called humiliation at Canossa (1077) profited neither party, Henry's second deposition (1080) was without serious effect. After a series of invasions (1081-1084), Henry entered Rome and was crowned by his anti-pope, only to be expelled by Gregory's Norman ally, Robert Guiscard, with a motley army which included Saracens, the atrocity of the Norman sack made it impossible for Gregory to remain and he died a virtual exile, almost a prisoner of his allies at Salerno, leaving Henry and his anti-pope master of Rome for the time.

Gregory was on excellent terms with William the Conqueror and responsible for Alexander's blessing of the Conquest (1066), but William, true to the Norman conception of strong monarchy, ignored Gregory's pressure to make England a her of the papacy, and forbade the circulation of papal bulls in England without his permission. Gregory asserted papal suzerainty over Hungary, Spain, Sardinia, and Corsica. After a vacancy of a year, a close friend of Gregory was elected pope, Victor III (1086-1087), an aged, unwilling pontiff, soon driven from Rome by Henry's partisans.

1088-1099. URBAN II. A Frenchman of noble blood, long intimate with Gregory, handsome, eloquent, learned, he continued Gregory's policy of maintaining the complete independence of the papacy and vigorous opposition to the emperors. Urban arranged the marriage of Countess Matilda and the son of the (Welf) Duke of Bavaria (1089).

Henry invaded northern Italy success-

fully, but Matilda held out in the hills, Urban, profiting by the anarchy in Germany, urged Henry's son Conrad to a revolt (1093) which was taken up by half of Lombardy. Urban at the Synod of Piacenza (1095) renewed the decrees against simony and clerical marriage, added a ban on clerical homage to laymen and received the appeal of the Byzantine emperor for help against the Turks at the Synod of Clermont (1095) (p. 255). Urban excommunicated King Philip I of France for adultery and proclaimed the First Crusade, directing his appeal to the nobles and peoples rather than the monarchs, most of whom were hostile to the papacy. On a visit to southern Italy, Urban made Roger of Sicily his legate (1098), thus exempting him from the visits of an ordinary legate. At the Synod of Bari, Urban was as much interested in keeping the papal leadership in the Crusade as he was in the debates on the procession of the Holy Ghost. The First Crusade was the first great victory for the reformed papacy, the papal dominance of the military effort to defend Christendom is significant of the new prestige of the papacy and the decline of the emperors.

1099-1118 **PASCHAL II** renewed the excommunication of Henry IV, intrigued with Henry's son, Anselm waged the investiture battle in England (1103-1107), ending in a compromise (1107), followed almost at once by the lapse of lay investiture in France (formerly one of the worst offenders). Paschal's humiliating renunciation (1115) of papal fiefs and secular revenues, his repudiation by his clergy, and his arrest by Henry V made a much more profound impression in Europe than Canossa. Paschal recalled (1112) his concessions.

1115 **The Countess Matilda**, having made a donation (1086 and 1102) of her allodial lands (the second great addition to papal holdings) to the papacy (subject to free testamentary disposition), willed them at her death (1115) to Henry V, who came and occupied the Matildine lands (1117) destined to be a bone of contention between the popes and emperors for a century.

1118-1119. **GELASIUS II** was forced to flee Rome, Henry V appointed his own pope, Gelasius having excommunicated (1118) Henry, was finally driven to France.

1119-1124. **CALIXTUS II**, a Burgundian, related to half the rulers of Europe and a skilled diplomat, arranged the Concordat of Worms (1122) which closed the investiture controversy with a compromise. **The Synod of R** 1119) wed the

decrees against simony, clerical marriage, and lay investiture, as well as the excommunication of Henry V.

1130-1138 **Papal schism**: precipitated by the corrupt election of the (Cluniac) Cardinal Pierleone (son of a rich converted Jewish banker of Rome), as **Anacletus II** (1130-1138), and the hostility of the rival houses of Corsi and Frangipani. The rival pope, **Innocent II** (1130-1143), supported by Bernard of Clairvaux and most of Europe, was given military support by Lothar in return for confirmation of his rights under the Concordat of 1122, imperial coronation, and investiture with the Matildine lands. Anacletus confirmed Roger II's title as king in return for his support.

1139 **The Second Lateran Council** (the tenth general council in the west) was attended by a thousand bishops. It marked the end of the schism.

1143. **The Commune of Rome**: established in opposition to the non-Roman pope, it defied three feeble popes (Celestine II, Lucius II; Eugenius III). Arnold of Brescia, pupil of Abélard, emerged as the eloquent leader with bitter denunciations of clerical wealth and papal bloodshed and burning appeals for a return to apostolic poverty and simplicity. Temporary restoration of the ancient Roman state, appeal to the emperor's protection. Bernard of Clairvaux agreed with Arnold's indictment (cf. *De Consideratione*, addressed to Pope Eugenius), but saw salvation for the Church in purification from within, not in diminution of its great powers, and opposed Arnold as he had Abélard.

1147-1149 **The Second Crusade** (p. 256).

1154-1159 **Adrian IV** (Nicholas Breakspear, the only English pope). Son of a poor man, learned, kindly, of high character, he had risen by his own merits, Roman anarchy ended by a stern interdict. Arnold expelled, alliance with Frederick Barbarossa against William, King of Sicily, altercation with Frederick over his haughty refusal of ceremonial service to the pope (stirrup episode). The bitter hostility of the Romans to pope and emperor forced a surreptitious coronation and hurried departure from Rome.

1155. Frederick executed Arnold as a heretic, but abandoned Adrian to the Normans and forced him to an independent Italian policy (i.e. alliance with an anti-Norman league of southern barons and with Constantinople) which brought William of Sicily to his knees as the pope's vassal. Adrian accepted the Roman Commune and returned to Rome.

1158-1162 Frederick's second expedition to Italy the League of Pavia (Brescia, Cremona, Parma, Piacenza) supported Frederick, Milan and its league were reduced to submission. The great Diet of Roncaglia. Frederick, using Roman law to justify an extreme assertion of imperial rights and a brusque resumption of imperial regalia, substituted an imperial *podesità* for the consuls in the Lombard cities, drove Milan into open revolt (1159-1162) and turned the towns to alliance with the pope. Renewal of the papal alliance with Byzantium, formation of an alliance of Lombard towns under papal auspices.

1159-1181. ALEXANDER III (imperialist anti-popes Victor IV, Paschal III, Calixtus III). Frederick, citing precedents from Constantine, Charlemagne and Otto the Great, held a synod at Pavia to adjudicate the claims of Alexander III and Victor IV. Alexander ignored the synod, Victor was recognized. Alexander, after an exile in France, returned and excommunicated Frederick (1165). Renewal of the town leagues (1164), Milan rebuilt, expulsion of imperial *podesitàs*.

1167-1168 Frederick's fourth expedition to Italy. Alexander's flight to the Normans, Frederick's capture of Rome, renewal of the Lombard League (1168), promises of mutual aid, organization for federal administration, erection of Alessandria, a great fortress city (named for the pope), to guard the passes (1168), Italy virtually independent.

1174. Frederick's fifth expedition to Italy. vain siege of Alessandria, complete defeat at Legnano (1176); preliminary peace of Venice (1177, the centenary of Canossa).

1179 The Third Lateran Council decreed a two-thirds vote of the conclave to be necessary for a valid papal election.

1181-1198 A series of unimportant popes, often exiled from Rome by local anarchy until 1188, when papal recognition of the Commune of Rome made peaceful residence again possible.

1183 Peace of Constance. imperial suzerainty in Italy recognized, resumption by the Lombard towns of all *regalia* they had ever enjoyed, including the right to maintain an army, to fortify, to keep the league or expand it, full judicial jurisdiction, control of their own coinage, abolition of the imperial *podesitàs*. The only relic of imperial control was the reservation of the emperor's right to confirm elected consuls, the right of appeal to the imperial court, and the retention of the *forum* as a

contribution to military needs. The Lombard towns were autonomous for all practical purposes under a very loose system of imperial legates and vicars.

1184 Frederick's sixth expedition to Italy, utilizing the split in the Lombard League (after 1181) and local feuds in Tuscany and Bologna. Frederick created a strong imperial party in middle Italy and by a liberal charter (1185) even won over Milan.

1189-1192 The Third Crusade (p. 250).

1198-1216 INNOCENT III A tough-minded Italian patrician of German blood (whose family provided the Church with eight popes), chosen by the cardinals to restore the political power of the papacy. Animated by an historical mysticism, he looked on Christendom as a single community in which he aimed to combine moral unity with a world-state under papal guidance. He deduced the papal powers from the Petrine Theory, the *Old Testament*, the *Donation of Constantine* and from the duty of the pope to insure justice, maintain peace, prevent and punish sin, and aid the unfortunate. With a clear grasp of essentials, he never lost sight of this concept, but his frequent opportunism destroyed his moral grandeur. Insistence not on moral or theological, but on historical grounds (i.e. the Translation of the Empire) on the right (claimed by Gregory VII) to pass on imperial elections. A brilliant administrator, he first brought the papal chancery into systematic organization (division into four sections under experts, careful systematized treatment of documents) and made a great collection of canons and decretals. This pontificate was the zenith of the mediæval papacy.

Restoration of the Papal States (Spolito, Ancona, Romagna regained), many towns succeeded in escaping and keeping their local autonomy. Tuscany an anti-imperial league under papal auspices, towns like Florence, Lucca, and Siena retained their appropriations of the Matildine lands (a partial foundation of their later power), the rest of the Matildine lands were regained by the Church. Innocent used his position first as protector, then as guardian of Frederick II, in an attempt to alienate Sicily from the Hohenstaufens.

Steady insistence on a crusade. The Fourth Crusade (p. 256) combined opportunity to attack the mndel with a chance to reunite the Roman and Orthodox Churches. Innocent reconciled himself to the sack of Constantinople by the organization of the new Latin Church of Constantinople. The Albigensian Crusade (p. 229) directed the spreading heresy of southern

France, drenched that region with blood and exterminated one of the most advanced local cultures in Europe, under revolting circumstances of feudal cynicism and clerical intolerance. Simon de Montfort nullified Innocent's efforts to divert the crusaders' ardor to Spain against the Moslems.

Vindication of the political claims of the papacy: (1) Asserting his right to pass on imperial elections, Innocent rejected the Hohenstaufen claimant (Philip of Swabia) to the imperial crown, ignored the undoubted rights of Frederick, crowned and supported Otto (in return for large promises of obedience to papal authority), and then procured (in alliance with King Philip II) the election of Frederick II. (2) By excommunicating Philip II (1198) he forced him to a formal recognition of his wife Ingeborg, but was coldly rebuffed when he intervened in Philip's struggle with the Angevins. (3) Maintaining the rights of his nominee to the See of Canterbury (Langton), Innocent forced King John of England (interdict, 1208) to cede England to the Holy See and receive it back as a fief (1213). (4) Innocent received the homage as papal vassals of the following states: Aragon, Bulgaria, Denmark, Hungary, Poland, Portugal, Serbia, and brought the Roman Church to its closest approximation to an ideal Christian, universal commonwealth.

The struggle against urban heresy. The Church, long organized to deal with a predominantly rural society, was increasingly out of touch with the rising bourgeoisie and urban proletariat as town life revived and expanded, the anti-clericalism of the cities had become a major problem. The Italian, Francis of Assisi, and the Spaniard, Dominic, organized the spontaneous response within the Church to this crisis. Francis (d. 1226), a converted gilded youth as the joyous "troubadour of religion" began preaching the beauties of humbleness, poverty, simplicity, and devotion, of the brotherhood of man, of man and the animals, of man and nature. His cheerful vernacular hymns won tremendous success in the towns of Italy. Founded as a brotherhood, whence the name *Friars Minor* (*Minorites*), *Grey Friars*, also *Cordeliers*, the *Franciscans* won cautious support from Innocent, but not formal ratification as a corporation until 1223.

The second of the Mendicant Orders, the Dominicans, born of Dominic's campaign against the Albigensian heresy, was sanctioned by Innocent (1215). Organized as a preaching order, the Dominicans (*Friars Preachers*, *Black Friars*, or *Jacobins* in Paris) patterned their constitution on the *Frank* These two orders

were not monastic, rural monks, but town dwellers devoted to preaching and charity. The conduct of the Inquisition was entrusted to them (1233) and their direct influence on education (especially that of the Dominicans) was enormous.

1215. The Fourth Lateran Council was the climax of Innocent's pontificate (attended by 400 bishops, 800 abbots and priors, and the representatives of the monarchs of Christendom) and its decrees were of tremendous significance: (1) The Church was pronounced one and universal, (2) the Sacraments were decreed the channel of grace, and the chief sacrament, the Eucharist, (3) the Dogma of transubstantiation was proclaimed, (4) annual confession, penance, and communion were enjoined, (5) careful rules were made as to episcopal elections and the qualifications of the clergy, and (6) injunctions for the maintenance of education in each cathedral and for theological instruction were formulated, (7) the Albigensian and Catharist heresies were condemned, (8) trial by ordeal and by battle forbidden, (9) relic worship regulated, and (10) rules of monastic life were made more rigorous. Finally, another crusade was proclaimed.

1216-1227. HONORIUS III, a high-minded noble or conciliatory disposition who managed to keep on relatively good terms with Frederick II.

1227-1241. GREGORY IX, a relative of Innocent III, aged and fiery, he never relaxed his relentless pressure on Frederick. Canonization of Francis of Assisi (1228) and Dominic (1234).

1243-1254. INNOCENT IV, a canon lawyer. Supposedly friendly to Frederick, he continued the uncompromising attack on the emperor, and encompassed the final ruin of the Hohenstaufen.

1271-1276. GREGORY X (*Visconti*), a high-minded pope with three aims: to pacify Italy, to check Charles of Anjou and the rising power of France, and to pacify Germany. At the Synod of Lyons (1274) he provided for the seclusion of conclaves to avoid corruption. His successors were occupied with Italian affairs (the war of Naples and Sicily, baronial anarchy in Rome, etc.), and the advancement of their own houses: Nicholas III (*Orsini*) (1277-1280), a foe of Charles of Anjou, Martin IV (1281-1285), a puppet of Charles of Anjou, Honorius IV (*Savelli*) (1285-1287), Nicholas IV (*Colonna*) (1288-1292). The rivalries of the great houses was so close that two years were required to elect Nicholas

successor, a hermit dragged unwilling (as a result of Cardinal Malabranca's dream) to the Holy See, Celestine V (1294), who never saw Rome, a puppet of Charles of Anjou and Cardinal Caetani. Induced (probably) by Caetani (the midnight voice, a megaphone over the papal couch) he resigned (*The Great Refusal*, Dante, *Inf* III, 60) and was kept a prisoner by his successor, Boniface VIII (*Caetani*).

1294-1534. THE SECULARIZED PAPACY absorption in secular politics to the exclusion of spiritual leadership

1294-1303. BONIFACE VIII (*Caetani*)

Surpassed all his colleagues in the Sacred College as lawyer, diplomat, and man of affairs. A skeptic in religion, but a believer in amulets and magic, well read in the pagan classics, he was the *last mediaeval pope*, and the last pope to claim the universal authority of the papacy as asserted by Gregory VII and maintained by Innocent III. Addicted to low company he was not as vicious as contemporary propaganda painted him. Handsome and vain he substituted on occasion imperial dress and regalia for papal vestments (*I am pope, I am Caesar*). Rude beyond belief, domineering and well-hated, his chief aim was the aggrandizement of the Caetani family. An intelligent patron of architecture and art: Giotto in Rome.

1295. Bent on regaining Sicily for the papacy, Boniface continued the support of the Angevin claimant Charles II of Naples, arranged the Peace of 1295, by which James of Aragon exchanged Sicily for the investiture of Sardinia and Corsica, and the extinction of French claims in Aragon.

1296. The Bull *Clericis laicos*, designed to bring the kings of France and England to accept papal intervention, forbade the payment of taxes by the clergy to lay rulers without papal consent (a vain attempt to maintain a mediaeval custom in the face of rising national states). Philip IV of France answered with an embargo on the export of bullion, Edward I of England with outlawry of the clergy, both were supported by public opinion expressed in their national assemblies (pp. 200, 232).

1297. Angered by the Colonna, their insistence on the validity of Celestine V's election, their appeal to a general council, and their support of the Aragonese in Sicily, the pope began a ventable crusade which exiled the Colonna (Palestrina, the family stronghold, razed).

Recognition of the rights of Robert (second son of Charles II) in Naples (exclusion of Carobert of

of the formation of a Caetani state as a threat to the barons

1300. THE GREAT JUBILEE, zenith of the pontificate, one of the magnificent pageants of the mediaeval papacy, managed with tremendous pomp by Boniface, huge donations (raked over public tables by papal "croupiers"), the proceeds intended by Boniface for the second Caetani state to be formed in Tuscany and for the subjection of Sicily.

1302 Charles of Valois' failure to dislodge Frederick, the Aragonese claimant in Sicily, forced Boniface to the Peace of 1302 which ended the War of the Sicilian Vespers, left Frederick king, and provided for the ultimate reunion of Naples and Sicily under the Aragonese.

1302-1303. Boniface's defeat and humiliation by the national states.

The Bull *Unam sanctam* (1302) marked the climax of papal claims to superiority over national states and lay rulers. Philip IV (his appeal for a compromise rejected) dispatched Nogaret to bring the pope to French soil for trial by a general council called by Philip.

1303. The "Terrible Day at Anagni"

Nogaret and Sciarra Colonna penetrated to the papal apartment, found Boniface in bed, threatened him with death, tried to force his resignation, took him prisoner. Faced with a public reaction against them as foreigners, Nogaret and Colonna fled, and Boniface died shortly of humiliation. The papacy, so lately triumphant over the empire, found itself defeated by a new force, national feeling supporting national monarchy, and the defeat vindicated the claim of the new states to tax clerics and to maintain criminal jurisdiction over them.

1303-1304. BENEDICT XI. Exiled to

Perugia by the anarchy in Rome, he promulgated a bull condemning the principals in the affair at Anagni, and died almost immediately (reputedly by poison). The cardinals, almost evenly divided for and against Boniface, after a conclave of ten months, chose a compromise candidate, the French Archbishop of Bordeaux, Bertrand de Got (supposed to be a bitter foe of Philip IV), who assumed the name

1305-1314. CLEMENT V (1305-1314)

Clement never entered Italy and became friendly (bribed?) to Philip. The Synod of Vienne (1311-1312) exonerated Boniface's memory despite Philip's pressure, but Philip had his way with the Templars (1307) (p. 232). Italy was in anarchy, but Clement was bent on returning there as soon as he had made peace between England and France and

sade. To escape Philip, Clement established the papal court at Avignon (Avignon was an enclave in the Venaisin which was papal territory). (Cont. p. 286)

(1) *The Norman Kingdom in South Italy and Sicily, 1105-1194*

1130-1154. The Norman Count Roger II of Sicily (1105-1130) succeeded the Norman Duke William of Apulia (1111-1127) and in 1130 assumed the title of King of Sicily, Apulia, and Capua with the approval of anti-Pope Anacletus II. Excommunicated by Pope Innocent II (1139) for his alliance with Anacletus, he defeated Innocent (1140), took him prisoner, and forced recognition of his title. By skilful diplomacy he prevented a joint invasion of Sicily by the Greek and Roman emperors. Planning a Mediterranean commercial empire, Roger established an extensive North African holding (at its maximum, 1153).

1154-1166. William I, continuing Roger's policy defeated (1156) the Byzantine allies of Pope Adrian IV and compelled Adrian to recognize his title in Sicily, Apulia, Naples, Amalfi, and Salerno. He supported Pope Alexander III against Frederick I.

1166-1189. William II continued this policy, but as he planned a Mediterranean empire and wished a free hand, he welcomed the marriage (1180) of Constance (Roger II's daughter), his heiress, to the future Emperor Henry VI. He himself married Joan, sister of King Richard I of England, and intended to lead the Third Crusade as part of his imperial plans. On his death,

1190-1194. Tancred of Lecce (son of Roger, Duke of Apulia, the brother of Constance) led a vigorous native resistance to the Emperor Henry VI (king, 1194-1197) with the support of the pope and Richard I. Henry reduced Sicily, southern Italy, and part of Tuscany, with the aid of Pisa and Genoa retained the Matildine lands in central Italy, organized an imperial administration of his holdings, and planned a great empire with Italy as its base. Purely Norman rule ended with Tancred.

The Norman kingship in southern Italy and Sicily was theocratic, on Byzantine lines, the administration was an efficient, departmentalized bureaucracy. Tremendous prosperity and efficient taxation made the Sicilian monarchs perhaps the richest in Europe. Dealing with a cosmopolitan kingdom containing Italian, Greek, and Saracen elements, and needing settlers, the

cism which provided for wide racial divergences in law, religion, and culture.

Roger II's cosmopolitan court and generous patronage of the learned produced a brilliant circle including the Arab geographer Edrisi, Eugenius the translator of Ptolemy's *Optics*, and Henry Aristippus, translator of Plato's *Phaedo* and Book IV of Aristotle's *Meteorology*.

(2) *The Development of Italian Towns*

No continuous tradition of mediaeval and classical town government in Italy can be traced. The post-Carolingian anarchy left defense in local hands and rural refuges and town walls were the work of local co-operation. The bishops in Lombardy, traditional guardians of their flocks, with large episcopal and comital powers delegated from the monarchs, played a decisive rôle in communal organization for defense (e.g. Bergamo, 904). The first cases of true urban autonomy were in Amalfi, Benevento, and Naples (1000-1034), a development cut short by the advent of the Normans.

The great urban evolution took place in the north, and particularly in Lombardy, where sworn municipal leagues and urban associations appeared (probably) in the 10th century. In these cities the nobles (since ancient times town-dwellers for at least part of each year) played an important part, though they were always balanced by the bishops. The emperors, busy in Germany or preoccupied with the popes, made wide grants of regalian rights over local coinage, tolls, customs dues, police powers, and justice (diplomas of Henry I, Lothaire II, and Conrad II), there were also considerable delegations of local episcopal powers. Full-fledged communes appeared in the 11th and 12th centuries (e.g. Asti, 1093, Pavia, 1105, Florence, 1138, and Rome itself, by papal charter, 1188). Expansion in the great maritime and commercial republics was rapid (e.g. Pisa's new walls, 1081, Florence's second wall, 1172-1174, Venetian expansion in the Adriatic after the capture of Bari from the Saracens, 1002).

As a result of revolt and negotiation the towns of Lombardy were largely self-governing communes by the opening of the 12th century, and the consulate or its equivalent was in full activity by the end of the century. Typical town organization an assembly (legislation, declaration of war and peace, etc.), the consuls, core of the magistracy, usually four to twenty in number, serving a one-year term, and chosen from the leading families; the town council and

The development of the merchant and craft guilds led to a vigorous class warfare as the rising bourgeoisie asserted itself, and brought in the podestato (the *podestà*), a kind of local dictator during the last quarter of the 12th century.

In Tuscany the towns treated the counts as the Lombards had treated their bishops. Venice, thanks to her peculiar circumstances, evolved a unique commercial oligarchy.

(3) *The Rise of Venice to 1310*

Fugitives from the Huns found refuge among the fishing villages of the lagoons, the permanent establishment of Venice seems to date from the Lombard invasion (568). Venetian aid to Belisarius began the formal connection between Venice and Constantinople and a (largely) theoretical connection with the Eastern Roman Empire. The *tribuni maiores* (a central governing committee of the islands) dated from c. 568.

687. Election of the first doge. A salt monopoly and salt-iron trade were the sources of the first prosperity of Venice. Two great parties: (1) pro-Byzantine aristocrats favoring an hereditary doge, (2) democrats friendly to the Roman Church and (later) the Franks. Venice offered asylum to the Exarch of Ravenna fleeing from Liutprand, and gained trading rights with Ravenna. When Charlemagne ordered the pope to expel the Venetians from the Pentapolis and threatened the settlement in the lagoons, Venice turned again to Constantinople and in a treaty

810. Charlemagne and Nicephorus recognized Venice as Byzantine territory and accepted her mainland trading rights.

1000. After a two-hundred-year expansion in the Adriatic Venice completely reduced the Dalmatian pirates, and the doge took the title of Duke of Dalmatia. Venice was mistress of the sea road to the Holy Land (commemorated in the wedding of the doge and the sea).

1032. The aristocratic effort to establish an hereditary doge was defeated. Establishment of a council and senate.

1043. The construction of the Church of St. Mark begun, one of the most notable and influential examples of Byzantine architecture in the west.

1063. The first three crusades established Venetian trading rights in a number of Levantine ports (e.g. Sidon, 1102, Tyre, 1123) and founded the power of a

real ruling class. A war with the Eastern Empire (financed by the first known government bonds) was unsuccessful, and led to the institution of a deliberative assembly of 480 members (the germ of the Great Council).

1171. Appointment of the doge was transferred to this council, a complete triumph for the commercial aristocracy.

1198. A coronation oath (in varying terms) began to be exacted of the doge.

1204. IN THE FOURTH CRUSADE (p. 236) Venice gained the Cyclades, Sporades, Propontis, the Black Sea coasts, Thessalian littoral, and control of the Morea. She administered this vast empire on a kind of feudal tenure, portioning it out to families charged with defense of the sea ways. Venice had also gained a further foothold in Syrian ports.

From this period dates a great epoch of building and increasing oligarchic pressure as the government began to become a closed corporation of leading families.

1253-1299. THE STRUGGLE WITH GENOA for the Black Sea and Levantine trade. The feud of Genoa and Venice was ancient, and trouble began at Acre (1253). The first war with Genoa ended in the complete defeat (1258) of the Genoese.

1261. The Greeks seized Constantinople during the absence of the Venetian fleet; they favored Genoa, turning over Galata to her.

1264. The Venetians destroyed the Genoese fleet at Trepuni, and soon returned to their old status in Constantinople.

1289-1299. The advance of the Turks (capture of Lepoli, 1289, of Acre, 1291) led Venice to a treaty with the new masters of Asia Minor. Genoa met this by an effort to close the Dardanelles, and won a victory (1294) at Alexandretta, Venice forced the Dardanelles and sacked Galata. The Genoese defeated the Venetians at Curzola (1299), but Matteo Visconti negotiated an honorable peace (1299) for them.

1284. The first ducat was coined.
1290-1300. The perfection of the great galleys. Establishment of the Flanders galleys (1317).

1297. The Great Council was restricted in membership to those who had been members within the preceding four years. A commission added other names and then the council was closed to new members (except by heredity). In effect this excluded a large section of the citizens from any share of the government in favor of a nar-

row hered a v mine a oligarchy
Popular reaction led to a revolt (1300),
the leaders of which were hanged
1310 Tiepolo's rebellion, the only serious
uprising in Venetian history.
was crushed This seems to have been a
patriotic protest against the extreme oligarchy,
and led to the creation of an emergency
committee of public safety, the
Council of Ten, which soon became permanent
(1335).

The Venetian government thus consisted
of The Great Council (ie the patrician
castel), the Senate (a deliberative and legislative
body dealing with foreign affairs, peace,
war, finances trade), the Council
of Ten, a secret, rapidly acting body concerned
with morals conspiracy, European
affairs, finance, the war department, which
could override the Senate, the *Collegio* or
Cabinet (the administrative branch); the
doge and his council, which, sitting with the
Ten, made the Council of Seventeen

(Cont p 298)

c. FRANCE, 987-1314

987-1328. DIRECT LINE OF THE CAPETIAN HOUSE (the dynasty
continued until 1328)

987-996. HUGH (called *Capet*, from cloak
he wore as abbot of St Martin de
Tours) At Hugh's accession the kingship
was at its nadir; such power as Hugh had
was feudal, the royal title meant little more
than an hegemony over a feudal patchwork,
an ill-defined area called France, and the
prestige of ancient monarchical tradition
sanctified by ecclesiastical consecration
Hugh's own feudal domain consisted of the
Île de France (extending from Laon to Orléans,
with its center at Paris) and a few
scattered holdings. The great barons of
the so-called royal fiefs recognized Hugh as
their suzerain, but never did homage nor
rendered service. Hugh's special interest
was to maintain his control over his chief
resources, the Archbishopric of Reims and
the great bishoprics (Sens, Tours, Bourges)
and abbeys of the Île de France, and to
wean northeastern France away from the
Carolingian and imperial interest. Despite
clerical pressure, he avoided submission to
imperial suzerainty, a policy which facilitated
the demarcation between France and
Germany. In defiance of pope and emperor
he forced his own candidate into the
Archbishopric of Reims. Hugh crowned
his son shortly after his own coronation and
began a practice (*co-optation*) which the
early Capetians continued (until Philip II
no longer felt it necessary), thus insuring

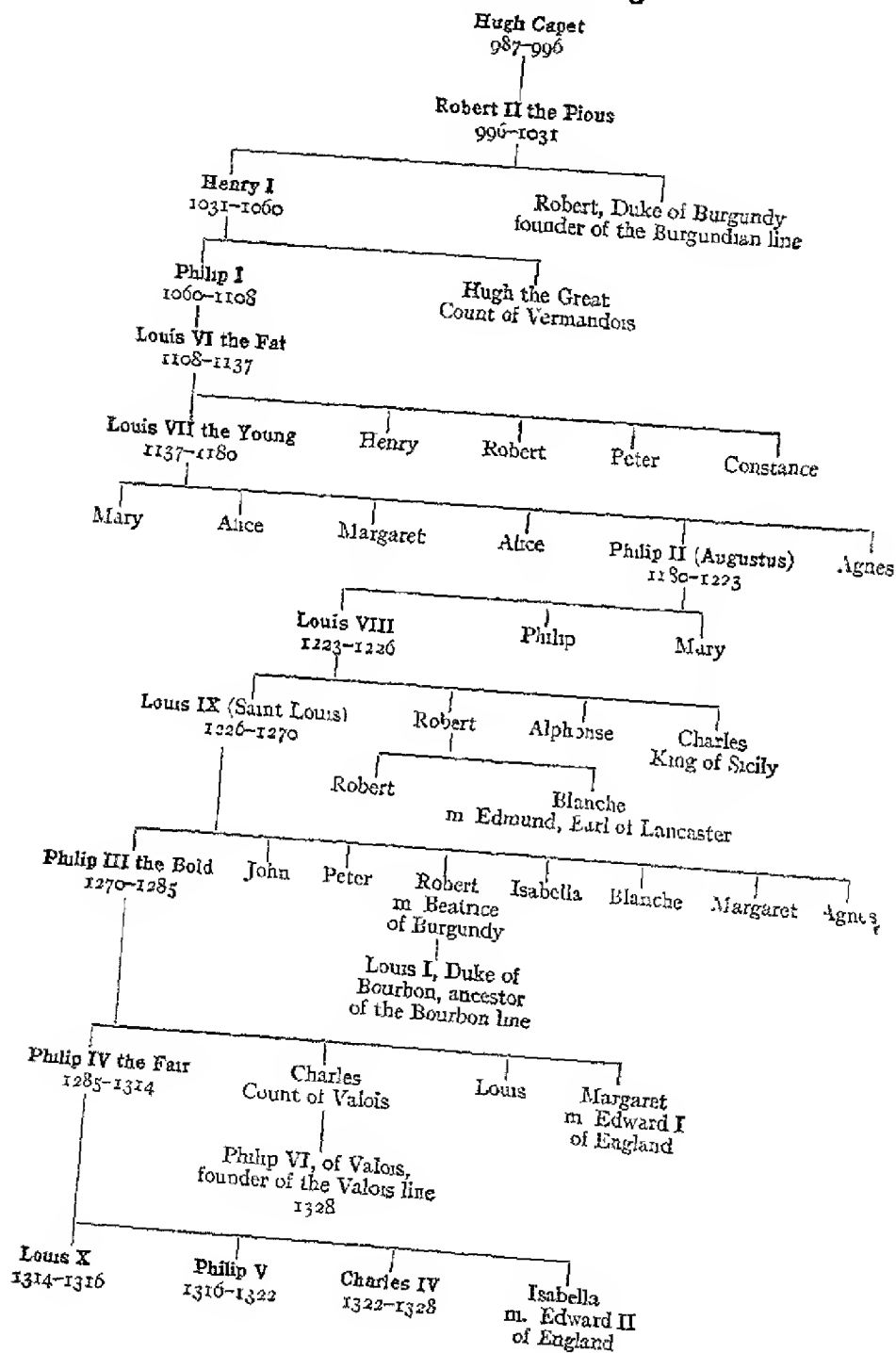
the succession and weakening the principle
(dear to the feudalism) of elective kingship

996-1031. ROBERT II (*the Pious*), an
active, well-educated, polished,
amiable ruler, a good soldier, supported by
the Duke of Normandy in constant wars
against his neighbors, and by the religious
houses of Burgundy in attacks on the Dukes
of Burgundy. The Duchy of Burgundy
escheated to the crown, and was given to
Robert, a younger son. Robert the Pious
like his father, supported the Cluniac
reformers. Minor territorial additions signified
the revival of royal power

1031-1066. HENRY I, an active, brave,
indelible ruler, whose reign
nevertheless marked the lowest ebb of the
Capetian fortunes. The rebellion of his
brother Robert supported by Eudes, Count
of Chartres and Troyes, was put down with
the aid of the Duke of Normandy, and
Robert was pacified by the grant of the
Duchy of Burgundy (which continued in
his family until 1361). Henry supported
the Duke of Normandy (1047), but led a
coalition against him two years later, and
was defeated. He boycotted the pope and
his synod at Reims, and, like his son and
successor, opposed the reform movement
in the Church. The *prévôts* were introduced
to administer justice and taxation in the
royal lands. The Kingdom of Burgundy
passed (1032) to the empire

1035-1066. RISE AND EXPANSION OF
NORMANDY. William I became
duke (1035) and until 1047 faced a series of
baronial revolts. With the aid of his feudal
suzerain, King Henry of France, William
defeated his revolting barons (1047) and
razed their castles. The union of Normandy
and Maine was completed (1063)
against powerful opposition from the
Counts of Anjou. William's alliance with
Henry was broken (1053), and Henry ravaged
the heart of Normandy (1053). Normandy
was now a fully developed feudal
state under firm ducal control. Military
service, assessed in knights' fees, was attached
to specific pieces of land, no castles
could be built or maintained without ducal
license. Private warfare and blood feud
were strictly limited. Coinage was a ducal
monopoly. The legal jurisdiction of the
duke was wide, local government was under
the duke's representatives (the *vicomtes*) who
commanded the local forces, guarded the
castles, did justice, collected the revenue
(a large part of which was cash). The
Church had been revived, but here too
the duke was supreme, naming bishops,
most of the abbots, and sitting in provincial
synods.

The Capetian Kings



Norman relations with England had grown closer and this tendency culminated in 1002 in the marriage of Duke Robert's sister Emma with King Ethelred. The son of this marriage, Edward the Confessor, educated largely at the Norman court, came to the throne of England (1042), and died without heirs (1066). The Witan at once elected Harold, Earl Godwin's son. William I of Normandy with a volunteer force (perhaps 5000-6000) collected from Normandy and the Continent, defeated Harold in the battle of Hastings (Oct. 14) and was crowned King of England on Christmas Day (p. 168). The *Bayeux Tapestry* forms a unique and probably contemporary record of this expedition.

1060-1105 PHILIP I enormously fat, but active and vigorous, excommunicated and unpopular with the clergy as the result of an adulterous marriage (1092) and because of his hostility to clerical reform. He defeated (1079) Duke William of Normandy (the *Conqueror*) and steadily supported Robert Curthose, William's son, against Anglo-Norman pressure. Systematic expansion of the resources of his house, and regular annexations to its domains in the face of stubborn feudal resistance. The *Chanson de Roland*, the national epic of France, was probably composed during this reign.

The growth of feudalism tended to diminish anarchy and to improve the general security of life, and ultimately led to decisive economic recovery in western Europe, a trend toward urban economy, and the emergence of a bourgeoisie who were beginning to accumulate capital. This development was a determining factor in the economic, social, and monarchical evolution of the 13th century. The Peace of God in the 10th century, and the Truce of God (first mentioned, 1027), promoted by the Church with Capetian support, were significant rather than effective attempts to reduce warfare.

1108-1128. A period in which the Capetians reduced the great feudatories north of the Loire and began the transformation of the vague ecclesiastical, judicial, and military rights derived from Carolingian tradition into royal powers over the French people as a whole.

1108-1137. LOUIS VI (the Fat) A brave soldier, of tremendous physique, intelligent, affable, avaricious, but liked by the peasantry, commercial class and clergy, the first popular Capetian. Consolidation of his Norman frontier (wars with Henry I of England, 1109-1112; 1116-1120), and steady reduction of his lesser vassals as far as the Loire. His charters to colonizers

(*libt.*) of waste lands, and frequent if inconsistent support of the communes, especially on the lands of the Church and the baronage, began the long alliance of the Capetians with bourgeois interests; Louis' *charte of Lorris*, widely copied in town charters, was a significant sign of the great urban development setting in all over Europe in this period. As protector of the Church, Louis gained a foothold in the lands of his vassals. Careers at court were opened to talented clergy and bourgeois; great influence of Suger (see below). Louis' compromise with the Church over feudal patronage and investiture initiated the King of France's effective rôle as *elder son of the Church*. He was the first Capetian to intervene effectively outside his own feudal lands. He defeated the alliance of Henry I of England with the Emperor Henry V, and stopped (1124) a German invasion. The marriage (1137) of his son Louis to Eleanor, heiress of William X of Aquitaine (i.e. Guienne [*Aquitania Secunda*] and Gascony), marked the Capetian effort to balance the Anglo-Norman menace in the north by additions of territory south of the Loire. The Anglo-Norman danger had appeared in aggravated form when in 1129 Geoffrey became Count of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine. He had in 1118 married Matilda (daughter of Henry I of England), and proceeded (1135) to conquer Normandy.

DEVELOPMENT OF ROYAL ADMINISTRATION UNDER THE EARLY CAPETIANS. The court of the king, usually known as the *curia regis*, consisting as it did of magnates, royal vassals, and court officials (mainly chosen from the baronage), was essentially feudal in spirit and tradition. Meeting at royal summons and relatively frequently, its early duties were undifferentiated, its functions judicial, advisory, legislative. The royal administration was in control of the great officers of the crown whose aim was to concentrate power in their own hands, a process which culminated in a virtual monopoly of such power by the *Garlande* family early in the 12th century. Louis VI, after a struggle (1128-1130), terminated their dominance, and thenceforth the Capetians relied increasingly on lesser and more docile nobles, clerics, and bourgeois men of affairs. Such men were career men devoted to the crown rather than to feudal ambitions, and their presence in the *curia regis* began the differentiation of its functions and its subjection to royal rather than feudal influences. Most notable of these careerists was Suger, Louis' old tutor, a cleric of humble origin, who became Abbot of St Denis (1122). An

able statesman, his influence was decisive in the reign of Louis and his son Louis VII. Suger began (c. 1136) the new abbey church of St. Denis, the first edifice wholly Gothic in design.

1100-1400. RISE OF TOWNS The economic revival of western Europe was paralleled by a resumption of town life and development throughout the west, which was most notable in France, where the movement reached its apogee in the 12th century, before the consistent advance of the Capetian monarchy began to retard its progress. Types of town development were by no means uniform, but important general categories can be distinguished. (1) The *commune* proper, a collective person endowed with legal rights and powers (e.g. financial, judicial), able to hold property. As a feudal person the *commune* could have vassals, render and exact homage, establish courts for its tenants, and even declare war and make treaties. Symbols of its independence were the belfry, town hall, and seal. Typical *communes* of northern France and Flanders were the *communes jurées* (e.g. Beauvais, St. Quentin [chartered before 1080], Rouen [chartered 1145], and Amiens [chartered in the 12th century]), in southern France the corresponding *communes* were called *consulates*, which enjoyed even greater rights than in the north, especially in Roussillon, Provence, Languedoc, Gascony, and Guienne. In the south the nobles took an active part in the formation of *consulates* and shared in their government. (2) *Villes de bourgeoisie* (or *communes surveillées*) had elements of communal powers in varying degrees, but lacked full political independence (i.e. they were privileged but unfree). They were found all over France, but especially in the center, and were the prevailing type on the royal domain. Citizens enjoyed specific privileges but the crown retained judicial and other powers in varying degrees. (3) *Villes neuves* (characteristic of the commercial north) and *bastides* (typical of the south, and usually strongholds) were small rural creations of kings or feudal lords given a charter from the first, establishing their status. (4) *Peasant associations* and village federations (influential in the north) which sought to define and guarantee the rights of their citizens. Governmentally town development seems to have been hardly the result of conscious effort to introduce a new political dispensation. It was rather an attempt to establish and define the rights of non-feudal groups, and aimed at economic prosperity and personal security. The movement constantly enjoyed royal support, but royal policy toward it was governed by

immediate political or financial considerations, and the crown always strove to reduce or control town independence in the interest of its own power. Ultimately monarchy triumphed, but not before the bourgeois groups and the serfs had altered their position to their own advantage.

1137-1180. LOUIS VII (the Young) not a strong king, but pious and therefore popular with the clergy. He remained under the influence of Suger until the latter's death in 1151. A papal interdict on the royal lands, resulting from Louis' insistence on his feudal rights, led to intervention by Bernard of Clairvaux.

1147. Louis inspired the Second Crusade (p. 256). He induced the Emperor Conrad III and Bernard of Clairvaux to join him and, leaving the kingdom in the hands of Suger, he set out for the east. He returned (1149) beaten, humiliated, and estranged from his wife Eleanor, who had accompanied him. The marriage was annulled (1152), probably due to lack of a male heir. This step cost the Capetians the territories of Poitou, Guienne, and Gascony, for Eleanor at once married Henry, Duke of Normandy, who in 1151 had succeeded his father as Count of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine. The acquisition of Eleanor's domains made Henry master of more than half of France and put him in a position to bring pressure on the holdings of the King of France both from the north and the south. When Henry in 1154 became King of England, the so-called Angevin Empire extended roughly from the Tweed to the Pyrenees.

1173. Louis supported Thomas Becket (p. 194) against Henry II of England, and was saved from Henry's wrath only through the mediation of the pope, Alexander III, a refugee in France against whom the Emperor Frederick had raised an anti-pope. It was Louis' interest to support the anti-imperial party, because of the pressure of the emperor upon Burgundy.

During the reign of Louis VII the appointment of non-feudal experts to the *curia regis* continued, and their influence on the administration began to be decisive. Grant of town charters also continued. The period was, moreover, one of marked

Cultural progress. The guild of masters (germ of the University of Paris) was recognized (c. 1170) and a number of eminent scholars appeared on the scene. St. Bernard of Clairvaux (1091-1153), member of the Cistercian Order, a great preacher, fervent reformer, and dominant spiritual figure of the west, Roscellinus (died c. 1121), champion of nominalism; Anselm (d. 1109), Abbot of Bec late Archbishop of Canter-

bury, champion of realism; Peter Abélard (d. 1142), eminent master at Paris (after about 1115), supporter of conceptualism, a middle ground in the great controversy over universals. Abélard's *sic et non* presented without solution the conflicting theological arguments on 158 important problems. John of Salisbury (d. 1180), Bishop of Chartres, favored the humanistic rather than the dialectical approach to knowledge. Peter Lombard, Bishop of Paris (1159), in his *Sententiae* offered a cautious solution of theological and philosophical problems which became a standard text of the Paris schools. In literature the period produced the *chansons de geste* and the troubadour lyrics.

1180-1223. PHILIP II (Augustus) He began his rule at fifteen and had no time for education (he knew no Latin). A calculating realist, perhaps the outstanding figure of his time, he was the consolidator of the monarchy and the founder of the organized state. As the "maker of Paris" he paved the streets, walled the city, and began the building of the Louvre.

1180. A six-year alliance with King Henry II of England enabled Philip to defeat Philip of Artois and the Counts of Champagne, to crush a baronial league against him, and to gain recognition for his title to Artois and Vermandois. Philip intrigued with the sons of Henry, welcomed the rebellious Richard (1187), and, joining him, defeated Henry (1189), who died the same year.

1191. Philip, under pressure of public opinion, joined King Richard on the Third Crusade (p. 256), eclipsed by Richard, he quarreled with him, returned to France, and intrigued against him with John during his (Richard's) captivity (1192-1194).

1194-1199. Richard, in a pitiless war of vengeance, built Château Gaillard on the Seine and restored the Angevin power in northern France.

1198 Excommunicated by Pope Innocent III for his divorce of Ingeborg of Denmark, Philip was forced by public opinion to a reconciliation, but sharply refused Innocent's offer of mediation with John, who succeeded Richard (1199).

1202-1204. The final duel with John for, and conquest of, the Angevin lands north of the Loire. On King John's refusal to stand trial as Philip's vassal on charges by Philip's vassal, Hugh of Lusignan, Philip declared John's French fiefs forfeited (1203), and supported John's nephew, Arthur of Brittany. The murder of Arthur (1203, cost John his French support, Châ-

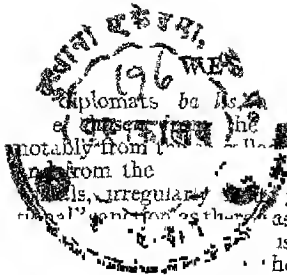
teau Gaillard was lost (1204), Normandy and Poitou followed, and Philip emerged master of the Angevin lands north of the Loire.

New royal officials, the *baillis* (*sénéchaux* in the south), paid professionals (often Roman lawyers), superseded the now feudalized *prévôts* as the chief local administrators (financial, judicial, military) on the Capetian lands (c. 1190). In the course of the 13th century *baillis* began to be assigned to regular districts (*baillages*), but they continued responsible to and removable by the king. As the royal domain expanded, royal administration was extended to it, and the foundation laid for a national, specialized, professional system.

Philip, henceforth master in the north, left the conquest of the south to his successors and devoted himself to statecraft rather than war. He played the barons off against each other, used his position as protector of the Church to weaken them further, and sought the support of the towns and rich bourgeoisie as a balance to the feudality. Part of this process involved the systematization of the royal finance, the regular exaction of feudal aids and obligations due to the crown as well as the systematic collection of customs, tolls, fines, and fees, though as yet there was no such thing as taxation in the modern sense. The levy of the Saladin tithe (1188) was, however, a forerunner of true taxation. Philip's reign also saw the formation of a semi-permanent royal army.

1208-1213. The Albigensian-Waldensian Crusade. The Albigensians (Catharists of Albi) and the Waldensians (followers of Peter Waldo) represented originally a reaction of the lower classes against clerical corruption, but the movement was soon espoused by the nobles, who saw in it a chance to appropriate church lands. Innocent III, after a vain appeal to Philip, proclaimed a crusade against these heretics. Philip took no direct part in the action, but allowed his northern vassals to begin the penetration of the south and thus prepare the way for the advance of the Capetian power. Simon de Montfort (the elder), a baron of the Île de France, emerged as the leader of the crusaders. His victory at Muret (1213) sealed the fate of the brilliant Provençal culture, of the leading southern barons, and of the heretics. After a long chapter of horrors the conquest was finally completed in a campaign by Louis VIII (1226). In the reign of Louis IX the County of Toulouse passed under Capetian administration and the royal domain was extended to the Medi-

- 1213-1214** The great anti Capetian Alliance (John of England, Emperor Otto IV, the Counts of Boulogne and Flanders, and most of the nobility of Flanders, Belgium, and Lorraine).
- 1214, July 27. BATTLE OF BOUVINES** Philip, in alliance with Emperor Frederick II, defeated the coalition near Tournai and thereby established the French monarchy in the first rank of the European powers, at the same time ruining John of England, assuring Frederick II of the imperial crown, and bringing Flanders under French influence. Militarily speaking the battle was a triumph of Philip's professional cavalry and bourgeois militia over the older infantry.
- 1223-1226. LOUIS VIII**, a pallid reflection of his father. The first Capetian king not crowned in his father's lifetime.
- 1224** Temporary conquest of the lands between the Loire and the Garonne, the English soon regained all but Poitou, the Limousin and Perigord (1225).
- 1226** Renewal of the Albigensian Crusade and Louis' conquest of the south. Louis began the dangerous practice of bestowing great fiefs as appanages of the princes of the blood, a practice which later had almost fatal consequences to the monarchy (the case of Burgundy).
- 1226-1270. LOUIS IX (St. Louis, canonized 1297)**. The most chivalrous man of his age and the ideal mediaeval king. Handsome and lofty in character, Louis' careful education prepared him for a unique reign, in which ethics dominated policy. His justice won him national support and made him the arbiter of Europe. His reign was the golden age of mediaeval France.
- 1226-1234**. Minority of Louis IX and regency of his able and devout mother, Blanche of Castile. With the support of the Church, the royal officials and the people, Blanche was able to suppress a number of feudal rebellions (1226-1231). By the Treaty of Paris (1129) Raymond of Toulouse surrendered, and his heiress was betrothed to Louis' brother, Alfonso. Louis himself was married to Margaret of Provence and thus began the severance of that province from the empire.
- 1233** As part of the campaign against heresy, Pope Gregory IX granted independent authority to investigate heresy to the Dominicans, requiring the bishops to co-operate with them. Louis later supported the Inquisition, despite episcopal objections.
- 1241**. Louis induced the Emperor Frederick II to release the prelates and delegates captured off Genoa while *en route* to a synod at Rome, but, without directly attacking the Church, he associated himself with Frederick's grievances against the pope and refused to intervene against the emperor (1247).
- 1242**. Invasion of France by Henry III of England, in coalition with the rebellious feudal lords of southern France. The whole movement collapsed and was followed by the final submission of Aquitaine and Toulouse (1245).
- 1244**. Louis took the Cross, against his mother's advice, and sailed on his first crusade (1248). His aim was to free Palestine by the capture of Egypt, but the expedition was poorly managed. Louis was captured (1250), and most of his army was put to the sword. Louis himself was ransomed and returned to France.
- 1258**. The Treaty of Corbeil, representing a peaceful adjustment of conflicting claims between France and Aragon, to the advantage of France. Louis' son, Philip, was betrothed to Isabella of Aragon.
- 1259**. Treaty of Paris. Louis, in the interest of amity, yielded Perigord and the Limousin to the King of England, despite protests from both provinces. In return he received the renunciation of English claims to Normandy, Maine, Poitou. Henceforth Guienne became distinct from Aquitaine. This pacific gesture displeased opinion in both countries and weakened the French position in the south as the Hundred Years' War approached.
- 1265**. Louis permitted his brother, Charles of Anjou, to accept the crown of Sicily, a step which later involved France in Italian problems, with decisive consequences.
- 1270**. Louis' second crusade. Probably influenced by Charles of Anjou, who cherished far-reaching Mediterranean ambitions, Louis set out for Tunis. He died of pestilence, without accomplishing anything. Louis' reign was marked by rigorous insistence on inherent royal rights even at the expense of the Church, and despite episcopal protests. Royal justice was notably efficient and was constantly expanded. The right of appeal from feudal to royal courts was clearly established. The old *curia regis* had already become somewhat differentiated. A *chambre des comptes* and a *parlement* (i.e. high court) were already recognizable. Louis introduced the *enquêteurs*, itinerant investigators, to supervise the *baillis* and *sénéchaux*, but he made few other administrative innovations. Many of



diplomats by his... her officials... the royal household... notably from... du roi... from the... of royal... irregular... gave such "na... as to royal policy... issue of... whole realm on his

sole authority. By ordinance he outlawed private warfare, the carrying of arms and trial by battle as part of the royal judicial process, and extended the royal comage to the whole realm. By 1270 the communal movement was already in decline and the crown profited by enforcing a more rigorous control over the towns. Only one new charter (to the port of Aigues Mortes) was granted during the reign. The bourgeois oligarchy of the towns got on increasingly bad terms with the lower orders, often reducing the town finances to chaos. Louis took advantage of this state of affairs to introduce a town audit (1202). The country at large was prosperous in this period, but the financing of the two crusades and of the grandiose schemes of Charles of Anjou led to complaints that royal taxation was leading to bankruptcy and formed a bad precedent for Philip IV.

A brilliant cultural advance accompanied the general material and political progress of the time of Philip II and Louis IX; Perfection of the French Gothic: Cathedral of Chartres (c. 1194), Romanesque and Gothic, Amiens (c. 1200), Reims (1210), Louis IX's *Sainte Chapelle*; progress of naturalism in Gothic sculpture. University of Paris: Foundation charter (1200); regulations of Innocent III (1215), endowment of Robert de Sorbon (hence Sorbonne) in 1257. Advance of vernacular literature. Villehardouin's (died c. 1215) *Conquest of Constantinople* (the first vernacular historical writing), Chrétien de Troyes and the Arthurian romances, Goliardic verse (with pagan touch); *fabliaux* (risqué, semi-realistic bourgeois tales); *Aucassin and Nicolette* (a chaste fable marked by irony and realism), Jean de Meun's (d. 1305) completion of William of Lorris' *Roman de la Rose* (a satire on the follies of all classes, especially women and clergy); Jean de Joinville's *Histoire du roi Saint Louis* (1309), the first vernacular classic of lay biography. Paris the center of 13th-century philosophy: harmonization of the Greek philosophy, especially Aristotle (newly recovered during the Renaissance of the 12th century in Latin translations) with Christian orthodoxy: Vincent of Beauvais' (d. 1204) *Speculum Maius* (a compendium of contemporary knowledge); Albertus Magnus (a German, d. 1280), chief of the

Dominican teachers in Paris; Thomas Aquinas (an Italian, d. 1274), the pupil of Albertus Magnus. Thomas Aquinas' *Summa Theologiae* reconciled reason and religion, completed the integration of the classical learning and the Christian theology and remains to this day the basis of all Catholic theological teaching.

1270-1285. PHILIP III (the Rash), a hasty, ill-balanced king, victim of his favorites. The death of Philip's uncle, Alfonso of Poitiers, brought Languedoc under royal sway and established the royal power firmly in southern France (1272). The walls of Carcassonne and Aigues Mortes were built the latter place giving access to the Mediterranean. Unsuccessful candidacy (1273) of Charles of Anjou for the imperial crown. Crusade (1282) against the King of Aragon, Philip acting as papal champion against the successful rival of the House of Anjou in Sicily.

1281-1285. The pontificate of Martin IV brought to an end an anti-French period of papal policy, papal support of Charles of Anjou's ambitious dreams of Byzantine conquest until the Sicilian Vespers (p. 290). There followed another period of papal opposition to French ambitions.

1285-1314. PHILIP IV (the Fair). His reign had a distinctly modern flavor and was marked by ruthless expansion of the royal power and notable consolidation of the monarchy: royal finance superseded the feudal; Roman lawyers (trained at Bologna and Montpellier) rather than clerics dominated the government; papal pretensions were reduced and the national Church made virtually autonomous under royal domination.

1286. Edward I of England did homage for Guienne.

1293. Philip treacherously confiscated Gascony, which had been temporarily surrendered by Edward as a pledge, after a Gascon-Norman sea-night.

1294-1298. War with Edward I over Guienne. Philip announced a war levy on the clergy and followed a protest with a violent anti-papal pamphlet campaign. To finance the war Philip debased the coinage. He first made an alliance with the Scots (1295) and excluded English ships from all ports. In 1297, Edward invaded northern France, in alliance with the Count of Flanders, but the war was brought to a close by a truce negotiated by Pope Boniface VIII.

1296-1303. Philip's conflict with Pope Boniface VIII, who put forward extreme claims to papal supremacy. The

bull *Clericus laicos* (1206) forbade secular rulers to levy taxes on the clergy without papal consent. Philip retorted by forbidding the export of precious metals (a serious threat to the papal finances) and by a vigorous propaganda campaign. Boniface, engaged in a feud with the Colonna in Rome and absorbed in Sicilian affairs, gave way and practically annulled the bull (1297). But the great papal jubilee of 1300 was followed by a resumption of the quarrel, culminating in 1302 in the bull *Unam sanctam*, the most extreme assertion of the doctrine of papal theocracy in the Middle Ages. On the "Terrible Day" of Anagni (1303, p. 222), Nogaret and Sciarra Colonna attacked the papal palace, demanded the resignation of the pope, and had a violent scene with Boniface. The death of the aged pontiff followed shortly.

1302. The first well-authenticated convocation of the *Estates-General*, including representatives of the towns in their feudal capacity. The meeting was called mainly to insure national support for the king's struggle with the pope.

1302, July 11 Battle of the Spurs (at Courtrai), brought about by the troubles in Flanders. Philip had antagonized the Count of Flanders by his efforts to penetrate his territory, and the count had turned to Edward I of England for support. The Flemish nobility betrayed him (1300) and he lost both his liberty and his county. But French rule soon alienated the independent burghers and led to the massacre of the French (*Matin de Bruges*), followed by the battle of Courtrai, in which the burghers defeated the flower of the French chivalry.

1305. Election of Clement V (a Frenchman) as pope. Clement reluctantly accepted French royal domination, lingered in France after his election, and finally took up his residence at Avignon, thus beginning the *Babylonian or Avignonese Captivity* of the papacy (p. 223). During the Captivity (1309-1376) the French monarchy exercised an important influence on the papacy. Clement was obliged to quash the bulls of Boniface, to absolve the assailants of Anagni, and to support Philip's suppression of the Knights Templar (see below). Philip may properly be called the founder of *Gallicanism* (i.e. of the autonomy of the French Church).

1306. The Jews were arrested, despoiled, and expelled from France.

1307. The Order of the Knights Templar, a rich, decadent organization which acted as banker to the popes and which was a creditor of Philip, had become almost a

state within the state. Philip now launched an attack upon it. He had its lands occupied by royal officers and its property sequestered. The country was stirred up against the Order by a vigorous propaganda campaign and by an appeal to the States-General (1308). Clement was obliged to co-operate and the Inquisition was made use of in the trial, the entire affair being conducted with unparalleled ruthlessness and horror (torture freely used to extort confessions).

1312. The Order of the Templars was abolished by the *Synod of Vienne*. Its property was transferred to the Hospitalers (except in Spain, and in France where it passed to the crown). Philip made the Temple treasury a section of the royal finance administration.

New economic and social alignments. The rapid expansion of France and especially the wars of Philip III and Philip IV against England and Flanders, raised an acute financial problem. Philip IV tried every device to raise money (feudal aids, war levies to replace military service, tallage of towns, special levies on clergy and nobles, "loans" and "gifts," the *millôte* or sales tax, debasement of the coinage, attacks upon the Jews and Templars), but without finding an adequate solution. It was this situation primarily that explains the emergence of the

Estates-General. Levies on the nobles and clergy had long been arranged in meetings of representatives of these two orders, by negotiations between the towns and the royal agents the burghers had been brought to contribute. Provincial estates had been called frequently during the 13th century. The convocation of the *Estates-General* simply meant the substitution of national for provincial or local negotiation, and implied no principle of consent or control over royal taxation. The royal revenue was increased perhaps tenfold between the time of Louis IX and the time of Philip IV, but this meant overtaxation of all classes, harmful effects upon economic life, and estrangement of public opinion. Anti-tax leagues were organized and local assemblies drew up lists of grievances. Philip was obliged to call the *Estates-General* again in 1314, but as the bourgeoisie and the nobility distrusted each other, no effective measures were taken and no permanent constitutional development took place. Characteristic of the period was

Pierre Dubois' *De Recuperatione Sanctae Terrae* (c. 1306), ostensibly an appeal to Philip to undertake a crusade to recover the Holy Land from the Muslims, in reality an

extensive program of reform in the interests of strong national monarchy. Dubois envisaged the formation of a European league to enforce peace through common military action and economic boycott, disputes between parties to be settled by judicial methods. He called also for a system of universal education and for the secularization of church property. (*Cont. p. 275*)

f THE IBERIAN PENINSULA, 1037-1284

(1) Moslem Spain

1037-1086 THE MULUK AL-TAWA'IF

(i.e. *Party Kings*) These were petty dynasties founded on the ruins of the Umayyad Caliphate the Hammudids of Malaga (from 1010 onward) and of Algeciras (1039-); the Abbadids of Sevilla (1031-); the Zayrids of Granada (1012-); the Ishaqidids of Cordova (1031-); the Dhul-Nunids of Toledo (1035-); the Amirids of Valencia (1021-); the Tojibids and Hudids of Saragossa (1019- and 1031-). Most of these dynasties were absorbed by the most distinguished of them, the Abbadids, who summoned the Almoravids from Africa to aid them against Alfonso VI of Castile.

1056-1147. THE ALMORAVIDS, a Berber dynasty, founded by the Berber prophet Abdullah ibn Tashfin. They conquered Morocco and part of Algeria and were called into Spain by the Abbadids to help in the defense against the Christians. They defeated Alfonso of Castile at Zallaka (1086) and proceeded to annex Moorish Spain, with the exception of Toledo and Saragossa.

1130-1269. THE ALMOHADES, a dynasty founded by the Berber prophet Mohammed ibn Tumart. His successor, Abdul-Mu'min, annihilated the Almoravid army (1146), after which Morocco was conquered (1146).

1145-1150. The Almohades invaded and conquered Moorish Spain, after which they conquered Algeria (1152) and Tunis (1158). They were finally defeated by the Christian kings of Spain in

1212, July 16 The battle of Las Navas de Tolosa, which was followed by their expulsion from Spain. Thereafter only local Moslem dynasties remained, of which the Nasrids of Granada (1232-1492) alone offered much resistance to the Christians until union of the Christian states brought about their defeat.

(2) Castile

1072-1109. -ALFONSO VI, OF CASTILE.

He captured Toledo from the Moors (1085) and created his son-in-law, Henry of Burgundy, Count of Portugal (1093).

1086. The Moslems, alarmed by Alfonso's progress, called from Africa the great Yusuf ibn Tashfin (d. 1106), leader of the newly dominant sect of Berber fanatics, the Almoravids. Ibn Yusuf landed at Algeciras (1086), and with the support of Seville, began a successful counter-thrust against the Christians (defeat of Alfonso at Zallaka, 1086). Yusuf, recalled by the African situation, did not at once exploit his advantage, but on his return to Spain his energetic, puritanic reforms strengthened the Moslems and brought them into an integral relation (c. 1091) with his great African empire which was centered in Morocco. This empire quickly disintegrated on Yusuf's death.

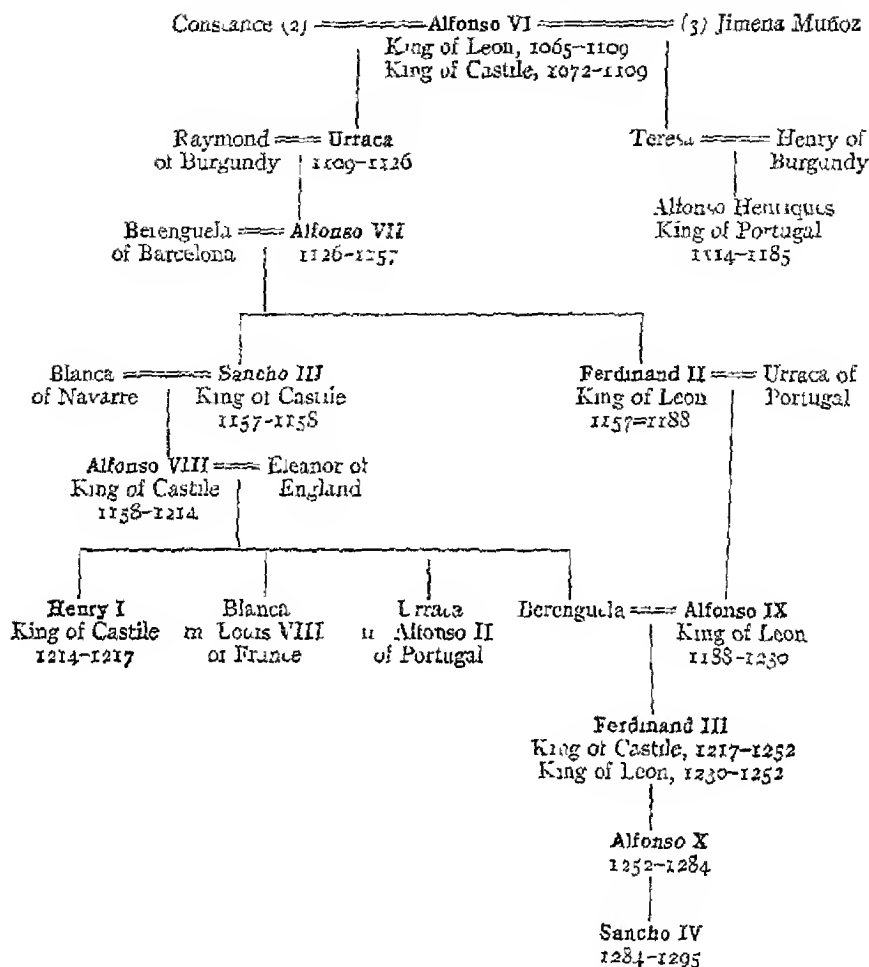
Alfonso resumed the Christian reconquest with the aid of Rodrigo (Ruy) Diaz of Bivar, the *Cid* (as applied by the Moslems means *lord* or *master*). Alfonso's style of "emperor" represented personal prestige and a vague hegemony rather than political reality.

The *Cid*, a Castilian originally in the service of Sancho II of Castile, later passed to that of Alfonso VI; was exiled (1081); returned to Castilian service (1087-1088); went over to the Moslem king of Saragossa after his second exile. Eventually he became ruler of Valencia. The *Cid* served both sides, was cruel, selfish, and proud. Despite these characteristics the legendary figure of the man became the great national lay hero of Spain. On his death (1099) Valencia was soon abandoned to the Almoravids.

In the course of the 11th century French influence began to penetrate the peninsula. The Cluniacs, already (1033) strong in Catalonia, Castile, and Aragon, reinforced French influence, and stimulated clerical reform and the reconquest. A literary reflection of this is to be found in the *Cantar de mio Cid* (c. 1140), which already shows French elements in the cycle of the *Cid* (a cycle which continued into the 15th century).

1126-1157. ALFONSO VII, crowned "emperor" (1135) on the basis of military ascendancy and an intense feeling of equality with rival monarchs, especially the Holy Roman emperors. The weakening of the Almoravids by luxury and the rise

Rulers of Leon and Castile



of rivals (the Almohades) in Africa (c. 1125), made possible a resumption of the reconquest (1144-1147) with wide raids into Andalusia. The Almohades, summoned from Africa (1146), completed (1172) the second restoration of Moslem unity, and made Moslem Spain a province of their African empire, reducing the Arab influence in Spain to nothing in favor of Berber fanatics. Alfonso's death was followed by a minority and an eight-year dynastic crisis from which his son Alfonso VIII finally emerged as master.

1158-1214. ALFONSO VIII After a series of successful attacks on the Moslems, Alfonso was overwhelmingly defeated (Alarcos, 1195) by the Almohades, then at

the zenith of their power. Leon and Navarre promptly invaded Castile, but Alfonso triumphed over them, and, with the aid of Pope Innocent III and the clergy, began the preparation of a unified general assault on the Moslems which led to the greatest victory of the reconquest, Las Navas de Tolosa (1212), soon followed by the decline of the Almohade power in Spain and Africa and by Christian dissension.

1179. Portugal's independence and royal title were recognized by Pope Alexander III.

1217-1252. FERDINAND III ended the dynastic war in Castile and attacked the Moors in the Guadalquivir Valley, taking Cordova (1236) and Seville

(1248) On the appeal of the Almohade emperor he sent aid to him, gaining in return a line of African fortresses, and permission to establish a Christian church at Marrakah. His plans for an invasion of Africa were cut short by death. After the capture of Jaen (1248), the emir was allowed to establish himself at Granada, the last Moorish stronghold, as Ferdinand's vassal.

The long history of guerrilla warfare in Castile disorganized tillage, made the people averse to agriculture, led to a concentration of population in the towns, and accounts for the poverty of Castilian agriculture, the tremendous influence of municipalities in mediæval Castile, the development of a race of soldiers, and the isolation of Spanish thought from general European currents. In general the Moors were not disliked, and intermarriages were not unusual until the 13th century. Then the preaching of crusades as part of the reconquest and papal propaganda prepared the Spanish mind for the burst of intolerance and fanaticism which began in the second half of the 13th century.

The war of Christian reconquest gave birth to three great native military orders, modeled partly on Moorish societies for border defense, partly on the international crusading orders, notably the Templars already established in the Peninsula. Some members took the regular monkish vows, others did not. Two Cistercian monks assumed (1158) the defense of Calatrava (when the Templars gave it up), and the Order of Calatrava which grew up was confirmed by the pope (1164). The Order of Santiago (established 1171) was the largest and richest, the Order of Alcántara (founded c. 1156) an offshoot of Calatrava, was the most clerical in type. By 1493 these orders had grown to stupendous size (the largest, Santiago, having 700,000 members and vassals, and an annual income of close to a million dollars, present value).

In the period following 1252 fear of the infidel was no longer a dominant force in Iberian politics and the nobles turned from assaults on the Moors to attacks upon the monarchy. The struggle between crown and baronage (which found a parallel all through Europe) was notable in Spain for the depth of governmental degradation which it produced. The new elements in the situation were clearly indicated in the reign of

1252-1284. ALFONSO X (the Learned), a versatile savant, distinguished as an astronomer (*Alfonsine Tables*) poet, historian, patron of learning, a pre-eminent lawyer and codifier (*las Siete Partidas*), devoted to the Roman ideal of centralized

absolute monarchy, but a futile, vacillating monarch. Lavish concessions to the nobles (1271) to avoid civil war established the anstocracy in a position from which it was not dislodged until the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella. Debasement of the coinage to relieve poverty produced economic crises, alternate alliance and war with the vassal King of Granada, and hostilities with Aragon, accomplished nothing. The Kingdom of Murcia was regained (1266) with the aid of James I of Aragon, and was then incorporated with Castile.

In foreign affairs Alfonso abandoned the long peninsularity of Spanish sovereigns, made a series of dynastic alliances, and attempted to give Castile an important European position.

1263-1267. Efforts to rectify the Portuguese boundary with advantage to Castile ultimately produced an actual loss of territory (in Algarve); Alfonso began the long effort to regain Portugal, which finally succeeded under Philip II (1580). Claims to (English) Gascony were revived (1253) and abandoned (1254); desultory wars fought with France. A twenty-year effort to win the crown of the Holy Roman Empire (despite papal opposition and public opinion) met with two defeats (1257 and 1273). The death of Alfonso's eldest son Ferdinand (1275) led at once to a bitter struggle over the succession organized by Alfonso's son Sancho.

(3) Barcelona and Catalonia

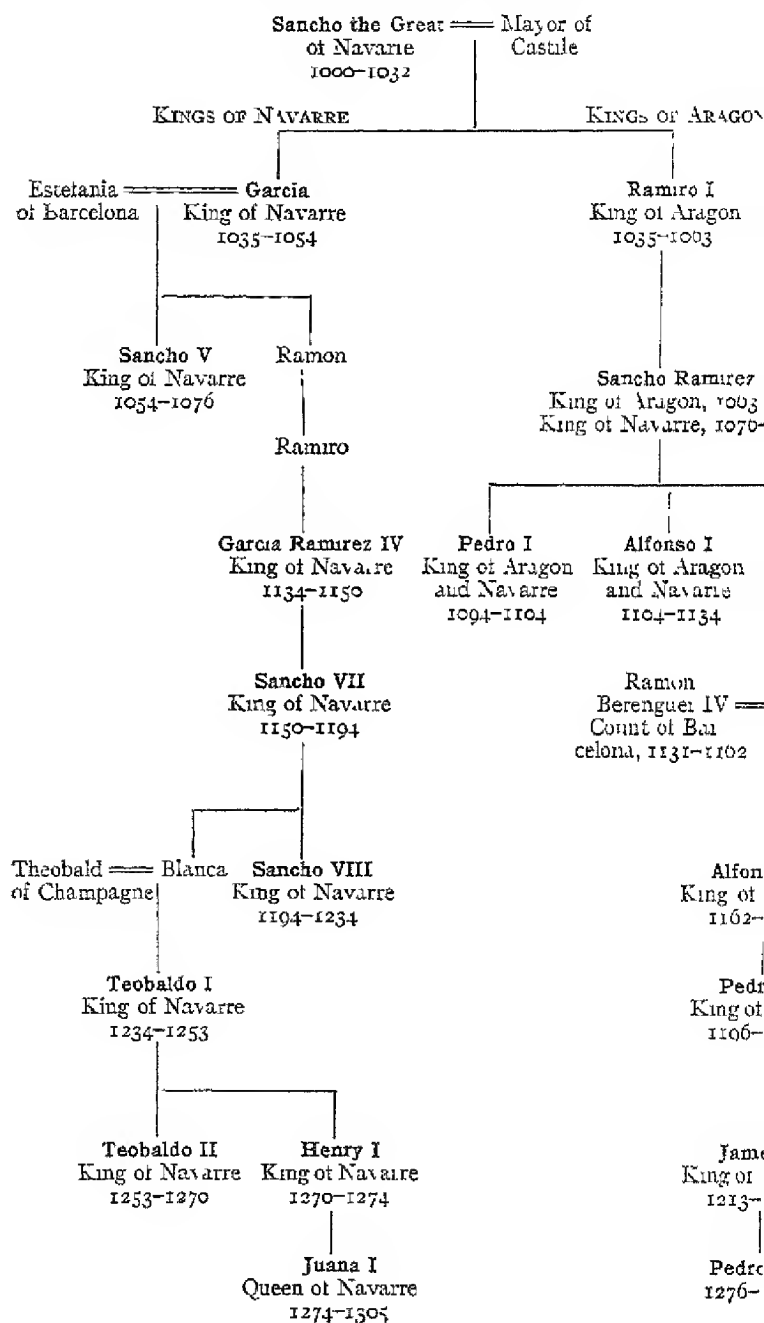
The Spanish Mark was established as a result of the conquest of Catalonia by Charlemagne (785-811). The County of Barcelona (erected 817) under the Frankish crown became independent, perhaps as early as the 9th century. By the beginning of the 12th century the Counts of Barcelona had large holdings north of the Pyrenees (notably in Provence), to which they added for a brief period (1114-1115) Majorca and Iviza, and permanently Tarragona.

1137. The union of Catalonia and Aragon, begun by Raymond Berenguer IV of Catalonia, was epochal, for it created a powerful state with access to the sea. Catalan territories included Cerdagne, a large part of Provence, etc., with the later addition of Roussillon (1172), Montpellier (1204, under French suzerainty), Foix, Nîmes, Beziers (1162-1196).

1213. The battle of Muret (see below) definitely turned Catalonia back into the Spanish orbit.

In the 13th century Barcelona, utilizing the skill of her native sailors and the local (mostly Jewish) -- of capital

The Houses of Navarre, Aragon, and Barcelona



and profiting by Italian commercial pioneering, began an extensive slave trade in Moorish prisoners. Aragonese imperial expansion in the Mediterranean (Sicily and the Greek Archipelago, pp 284, 290) gave Barcelona further commercial advantages and made it one of the most active Mediterranean ports.

Ramon Lull (1232-1315) was the greatest Catalan intellectual figure of the Middle Ages, a vernacular poet, novelist, missionary, mystic, educator, reformer, logician, scientist, and traveler.

(4) Navarre

Navarre gained its independence from Carolingian rule in the 9th century and fell heir to the Carolingian rights in Aragon, which was absorbed by Navarre in the 10th century. Sancho the Great (970-1035) secured the succession of Castile, conquered most of Leon and temporarily united the Iberian kingdoms. By his will Aragon passed to his son Ramiro (d 1063) and the union came to an end. On the death of Alfonso the Warrior (1104-1134), Navarre returned to its old ruling house until it passed under French control (1234) for two centuries.

(5) Aragon

Aragon, beginning as a county on the river Arago under Carolingian control, emerged from Carolingian domination in the middle of the 9th century, passed under the control of Navarre, and then became independent under Ramiro (d. 1063). The period from 1063 to 1134 is marked by confusion, intrigue, some progress against the Moors, and the annexation of Navarre (1076).

1104-1134 ALFONSO I (*the Warrior*) advanced to the Ebro, captured Saragossa (1118), and made raids to the Mediterranean. On Alfonso's death, Aragon chose his brother, Ramiro, a monk who emerged from retirement long enough to marry and produce a daughter, Petronilla, whom he married off to Raymond Berenguer IV (1131-1162), Count of Catalonia. He then returned (1137) to his monastery, leaving Petronilla under the guardianship of her husband, and the succession settled. The resulting union of Catalonia and Aragon was a decisive event in Spanish history.

After the union the Aragonese kings, preoccupied with Spanish affairs, let Provence drift, and on the death of Alfonso II (1162-1196) it passed to his son Alfonso, nominally under the authority of his brother Peter II

(1196-1213), but, in fact, lost for good. Alfonso tried to keep his Provençal holdings clear of the Albigensian heresy, but Raymond, Count of Toulouse, a supporter of the heresy, sought to win Peter II to his views. Peter went to Rome (1204) for a papal coronation, declared himself a vassal of the Holy See, and bore an honorable part at Las Navas de Tolosa, but was forced by the horrors of the Albigensian Crusade and the legitimate appeals of his vassals to oppose Simon de Montfort at Muret, where he fell.

1213 The battle of Muret marked the real end of Aragonese interests north of the Pyrenees.

1258 By the Treaty of Corbeil the King of France renounced his claims to Barcelona, Uigel (etc.), Cerdagne, Roussillon (etc.). Aragon ceded Carcassonne, Foix, Béziers, Nîmes, Narbonne, Toulouse (etc.). All rights in Provence passed to Margaret, wife of Louis IX, a marriage was arranged between Louis' son Philip and Isabella, daughter of James I of Aragon.

1213-1276 JAMES I (*the Conqueror*)

After the weakness and anarchy of his minority, James, one of the greatest soldiers of the Middle Ages, conquered Valencia in an intermittent campaign (1233-1245), took the Kingdom of Murcia (1233-1245), and freed the Aragonese frontier of the Moslem menace. James also attempted to establish his overlordship over Tlemcen and Bugia in North Africa, and to secure a hold in Tunis. Against the will of his Aragonese nobles, but with the support of his Catalan and French vassals, James conquered the Balearic Islands (1229-1235) thus beginning the creation of an Aragonese Mediterranean empire.

SPANISH CULTURE in the middle ages was very largely conditioned by external influences.

Architecture (1) Pre-romanesque architecture revealed traces of Visigothic, Carolingian, Persian, Byzantine, and Moslem traditions. (2) Romanesque architecture showed particularly the influence of Auvergne and Languedoc (e.g. second church of Santiago de Compostella). (3) The Gothic was marked by strong elements of the Burgundian style, brought by the Cluniacs. The full tide of the Gothic was probably introduced by the Cistercians (e.g. cathedrals of Toledo, c. 1230; Burgos 1126, Leon, c. 1230). Catalan Gothic shows German influences (cathedrals of Barcelona, 1208, Gerona, 1312). The later Spanish Gothic revealed French, German, and Flemish currents (e.g. cathedral of Seville,

begun 1401 west tower of Burgos cathedral, 1442). (4) Moorish architecture had a development of its own the great mosque of Cordova (completed 1178), the Alcazar, Seville (c. 1181), and the Alhambra (mostly 14th century).

Foundation of the first universities Palencia (1209), Salamanca (1212),
(*Cont p 280*)

(6) Portugal to 1279

1065- Reconquest from the Moors of much of present-day Portugal by Ferdinand the Great of Leon and Castile. Ferdinand organized the territory as a county, with Coimbra as the capital.

1093-1112. Henry of Burgundy, a descendant of King Robert of France, came to Spain with other knights-adventurers, to fight against the Moors. In return the King of Castile granted him the County of Portugal and gave him the hand of his (illegitimate) daughter, Theresa. Henry himself was a typical crusader, restless and enterprising, whose main hope

appears to have been to establish a dynasty in Castile

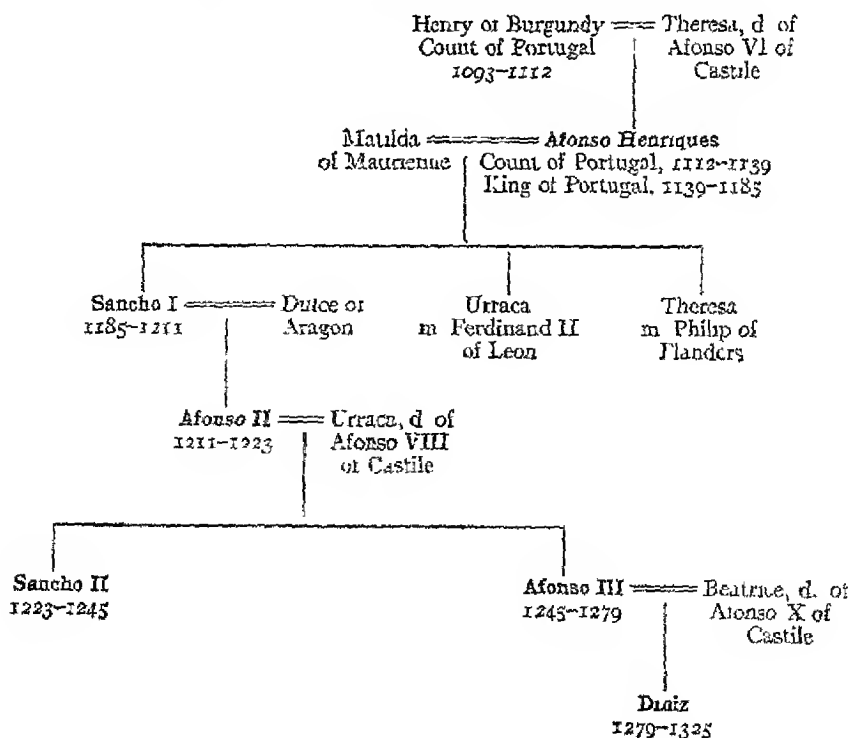
1112-1185. AFONSO HENRIQUES, the founder of the Portuguese monarchy and of the Burgundian dynasty. Afonso was only three years old at the death of his father. His mother Teresa ruled as regent, but soon became involved in a struggle with Galicia and Castile. Being defeated, she agreed to accept Castilian domination, but

1128 Afonso assumed authority, repudiated the agreement, and, after defeating the Spaniards, drove his mother into exile

1139. Afonso, one of the most famous knights of his age, began a long series of struggles against the Moors by defeating them in the battle of Ourique.

1143. Afonso was proclaimed king by the Cortes. The pope arranged the Treaty of Zamora between Portugal and Castile, the latter recognizing Portuguese independence, while Portugal accepted the suzerainty of the pope

Kings of Portugal, Burgundian House



1147. The Portuguese took Lisbon and established a frontier on the Tagus.
1169. Further conflicts with Castile led to Afonso's attack on Badajoz. He was defeated and captured, but soon released.
- 1185-1211. **SANCHO I**, the son of Afonso Henriques. His reign was noteworthy for the development of towns and for the establishment of military orders of knighthood. Sancho did much to settle colonists on the lands that were won back in the prolonged wars against the Moors.
- 1211-1223. **AFONSO II**. Beginning of the

king's conflict with the clergy, which led to interference by the pope and to restlessness among the nobility.

- 1223-1245 **SANCHO II**. His trouble with the clergy and nobility led ultimately to his deposition by the pope, who offered the crown to
- 1245-1279. **AFONSO III**, the brother of Sancho II and Count of Boulogne. His title being weak, Afonso was much dependent on the Cortes, in which the commons were for the first time represented. War with Castile was ended by a peace in 1253. (Cont. p. 284.)

2. EASTERN EUROPE

a. THE SLAVS

The Slavs, an eastern branch of the Indo-European family, were known to the Roman and Greek writers of the 1st and 2d centuries A.D. under the name of *Venedi* as inhabiting the region beyond the Vistula. The majority of modern scholars agree that the "original home" of the Slavs was the territory to the southeast of the Vistula and to the northeast of the Carpathian Mountains, in the upper basins of the Western Bug, the Prpele, and the Dniester. In the course of the early centuries of our era the Slavs expanded in all directions, and by the 6th century, when they were known to Gothic and Byzantine writers as *Slavens*, they were apparently already separated into three main divisions: (1) the western Slavs (the present-day Poles, Czechs, Slovaks, and Moravians); (2) the southern Slavs (the Bulgarians, Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes); (3) the eastern Slavs (the Russians, subsequently subdivided into the Great Russians, the Little Russians or the Ukrainians, and the White Russians).

However some recent theories insist that the "original" settlements of the Slavs extended much farther south and west than the area indicated above, and thus minimize the importance of the subsequent Slav migrations.

Closely related to the Slavs were the Lithuanians who, together with the Letes and the ancient Prussians, formed the Baltic branch of the Indo-European family. They inhabited the southeastern coast of the Baltic Sea, between the present location of Memel and Estonia.

b. BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA, TO 1306

The earliest recorded attempt at the

construction of a Slavic state was that made by

c. 623-658. **Samo**, who appears to have been a Frankish tradesman traveling in central Europe. Probably taking advantage of the defeat of the Avars by the Greeks in 626, he managed to unite the Czechs and some of the Wends, and succeeded in repulsing not only the Avars, but also the Franks under King Dagobert (631). But on the death of Samo the union of the tribes disintegrated.

870-894. **Svatopluk**, a Moravian prince, succeeded in uniting under his authority Moravia, Bohemia, and present-day Slovakia and managed to maintain his position as against the Germans. During his reign the western Slavs were converted to Christianity by the Greek missionaries, Cyril and Methodius (d. 885 in Moravia), but in the last years of the century the German clergy redoubled its efforts and won Bohemia and Moravia for the Latin Church, thus establishing the ecclesiastical dependence of the western Slavs on Rome.

906. The Kingdom of Moravia was dissolved as the result of a great defeat by the Hungarians.

929. **Death of St. Wenceslas**, of the house of Premysl, which had emerged in the late 9th century. Wenceslas was murdered by his younger brother representing the forces of the heathen reaction, who ascended the throne as

929-967. **BOLESLAV I**. He seems to have carried on constant warfare against the encroaching Germans, until forced (950) to accept German suzerainty. To the eastward he made many conquests and included Moravia, part of Slovakia, part of Silesia, and even Cracow in his kingdom. Furthermore, he appears to have established a

far strong royal power over the old tribal chiefs

967-999. BOLESŁAV II, son of the preceding. He apparently continued the policies of his father and saw to the final victory of the Christian faith (foundation of the Bishopric of Prague, 973). Missionaries from Bohemia took an active part in the conversion of Hungary and Poland.

The entire 11th and 12th centuries were filled with repeated dynastic conflicts between members of the Premysl family and the various claimants appealing to Poland and more particularly to the German emperors for support. The result was an ever-increasing German influence and the gradual integration of Bohemia with the empire.

999-1000. Boleslav the Brave of Poland took advantage of the anarchy in Bohemia to conquer Silesia, Moravia, and Cracow. In 1003 he became Duke of Bohemia, but was driven out in the next year by a German army. There followed another period of disorder, marked only by

1031. The reconquest of Moravia which thenceforth remained connected with Bohemia.

1034-1055. BRETISLAV I (the Restorer), who overran Silesia, took Cracow (1039) and for a time ruled Poland, which had now entered upon a period of disruption.

1041. Emperor Henry III, alarmed by the expansion of the Bohemian power, invaded the country and advanced to Prague. Bretislav agreed to give up his Polish conquests and pay tribute to the emperor.

1055-1061. Spytihnev, son of Bretislav, whose reign was uneventful.

1061-1092. VRATISLAV II, who, throughout his reign, loyally supported the German emperor Henry IV, in his struggle with the papacy and took part in the Italian campaigns. He was rewarded by Henry with a crown (1080), but only for his own person.

1092-1110. Bretislav II.

1111-1125. Vladislav I.

1125-1140. Sobeslav I.

1140-1173. VLADISLAV II. Like his predecessors, he supported the German emperors in the main, and was rewarded (1150) by Frederick Barbarossa with an hereditary crown for his aid against the Italian cities.

1173-1197. Another period of dynastic

conflict, during which there were no less than ten rulers.

1197-1230. OTTOKAR I. He took full advantage of the struggles for the succession which now began to wrack the German Empire. Siding now with one party, now with another, he made the Bohemian king (an imperial elector since the early 12th century) one of the decisive powers in German affairs. On the other hand, a long-drawn conflict with the clergy (1214-1221) led to the almost complete independence of the Church.

1212. The Golden Bull of Frederick II recognized the right of the Bohemian nobility to elect its own ruler.

1230-1253. WENCESLAS (VACLAV) I.

His reign was marked by large-scale immigration of Germans, encouraged by the ruler, possibly to counteract the growing power of the nobility. Germans had been coming in for a long time (chiefly clergy and nobility) but they now began to open up large forested tracts and to build cities, which were given practical autonomy under German (Magdeburg) law.

1247-1250. Rising of the nobility against the king, possibly in protest against the favor shown the Germans.

1251. The Austrian estates, after the death of the last Babenberg duke, elected Ottokar, son of Wenceslas, as duke.

1253-1278. OTTOKAR IV (the Great) whose reign marked the widest expansion of Bohemian power and was characterized by great prosperity (opening of the famous silver mines, which made Bohemia one of the wealthiest countries in the later Middle Ages).

1255. Ottokar carried on a successful campaign in support of the Teutonic Knights against the heathen Prussians.

1260. After defeating the Hungarians, Ottokar took from them the province of Styria.

1267. A second northern campaign, against the Lithuanians, achieved little.

1269. Ottokar, taking advantage of the interregnum in the German Empire, extended his power over Carinthia, Carniola and Istria.

1273. Election of Rudolph of Hapsburg as emperor. Ottokar refused to recognize him. The Diet of Regensburg (1274) therefore declared all Ottokar's acquisitions void. The emperor, supported by the Hungarians and by some of the

Bohemian nobles agreed to give up all but Bohemia and Moravia, and to recognize Rudolph's suzerainty even over these.

1278. New war between Rudolph and Ottokar. Ottokar was decisively defeated on the Marchfeld (Aug. 26) and killed.

1278-1305. Wenceslas II, a boy of seven, for whom Otto of Brandenburg at first acted as regent.

1290. Wenceslas was elected and crowned King of Poland.

1301. His son, Wenceslas, was elected King of Hungary (ruled to 1304).

1305-1306. Wenceslas III. He gave up the claim to Hungary and was murdered while en route to Poland to suppress a revolt of the nobles. End of the Premyslid line. (Cont p 304.)

c. POLAND, TO 1305

The Polish state emerged in the 10th century, the result of the unification of some six tribes under the *Polans*, who were ruled by the members of the semi-mythical family of Piast. From the outset the Poles were obliged to fight against the encroachment of the Germans from the west, the Prussians from the north, the Bohemians from the south, and the Hungarians, also in the south.

c. 960-992. MIESZKO I, of the house of Piast, the first historical ruler. He conquered the territory between the Oder and the Warthe Rivers, but was defeated by Markgraf Gero and obliged to recognize German suzerainty (973).

966. Mieszko was converted to Christianity by Bohemian missionaries, probably for political reasons to deprive the Germans of any further excuse for aggression. The acceptance of Latin Christianity meant the connection of Poland, like Bohemia and Hungary, with western European culture.

992-1025. BOLESŁAV I (*Chrobry* = the Brave). He ascended the throne at 25 and was the real organizer of the Polish state. An energetic but at times treacherous and cruel ruler, he built up an efficient military machine, laid the basis for an administrative system (*comites* = *castellans* = *Burggrafen*, with civil and military powers), organized the Church (establishment of Benedictine monasteries, etc.). Politically his aim appears to have been the union of all western Slavs under his rule. He conquered eastern Pomerania and gained access to the Baltic (992-994), added Silesia, Moravia, and Cracow to his domain (999), and induced Otto III to erect an in-

dependent Archbishopric of Gnesen (1000). On the death of Otto he took advantage of the confusion in Germany to occupy Lusatia and Meissen, and in 1003 made himself Duke of Bohemia. The new emperor, Henry II, carried on long wars against Boleslav to break his power (1004-) and ultimately forced the abandonment of Bohemia and Lusatia (1005). But by the Treaty of Bautzen (1018) Boleslav was given Lusatia as an imperial fief, and just before his death Boleslav was able to make himself King of Poland (1025).

1025-1034. MIESZKO II, a much weaker ruler. The Poles, like the other Slavs, divided the domain among the various sons of a deceased king, thus creating endless dynastic conflict and ample opportunity for intervention by neighboring rulers. During Mieszko's reign most of the territorial gains of Boleslav were lost. St. Stephen of Hungary conquered Slovakia (1027), Bretislav of Bohemia took Moravia (1031), Jaroslav of Russia acquired Kievania (1031); Canute of Denmark took Pomerania (1031). In 1032 the Emperor Conrad actually divided Poland between Mieszko and two of his relatives.

1034-1040. A period of violent dynastic struggle and general insurrection, including a heathen reaction (burning of monasteries, massacre of the clergy) and a peasant uprising against the landlords. In the meanwhile Bretislav of Bohemia seized Silesia (1038).

1038-1058. CASIMIR I (*the Restorer*), who succeeded, with the aid of the Emperor Henry III, in reconquering his domain, re-establishing Christianity and restoring order. Silesia was recovered (1054). In return Casimir was obliged to give up the royal title (becoming merely a *grand duke*) and to make numerous concessions to the nobility and clergy, thus initiating a baneful practice.

1058-1079. BOLESŁAV II (*the Bold*), one of the great mediaeval rulers. In the great struggle between the emperor and the pope he consistently supported the latter, as a counterweight to German influence. At the same time he did his utmost to throw off the pressure of the nobility. In his countless campaigns he reconquered upper Slovakia (1061-1063) and marched as far as Kiev, to put his relative upon the Russian throne (1069). In 1076 he reassumed the royal crown, with the pope's approval. But his entire policy estranged the nobility, which ultimately drove him from his throne.

1079-1102. Vladislav I (*Ladislav*), Hermann, an indolent and unwarlike ruler, brother of Boleslav. He resigned

the royal title and attempted to secure peace by supporting the Emperor Henry IV, as well as by courting the nobility and clergy.

1102-1138 BOLESŁAV III (*Wry-mouth*).

who acquired the throne only after a violent struggle with his brother Zbigniew. He was one of the greatest Polish kings, who defeated the Pomeranians (*battle of Naldo*, 1109) and, by the incorporation of Pomerania (1119-1123), re-established the access to the sea. At the same time he defeated the Emperor Henry V (1109, *battle of Hundsfield*, near Breslau) and checked the German advance. On the other hand, his campaigns in Hungary (1132-1135) had no definite results.

Bolesław completed the organization of the state, in which the great landlords (*nobles* = *magnates*), gentry (*milites* = *knights* = *szlachta*) had become well-defined social classes, the peasantry having steadily lost in the periods of confusion. The Church was reorganized under the Archbishop of Gnesen, by the papal legate Walo. In order to avoid dispute, Bolesław fixed the succession by seniority. Poland was divided into five principalities (Silesia, Great Poland, Masovia, Sandomir, Cracow) for his sons, Cracow was established as the capital, and was to go, with the title of *grand duke*, to the eldest member of the house of Piast. In actual fact this arrangement by no means eliminated the dynastic competition, but introduced a long period of disruption, during which the nobility and clergy waxed ever more powerful and the ducal or royal power became insignificant. Only the weakness of the neighboring states saved Poland from destruction.

1138-1146. Vladislav II (*Ladislav*).

1146-1173. Bolesław IV, an ineffectual ruler, during whose reign the Germans, under Albert the Bear and Henry the Lion, supported by Waldemar of Denmark, drove back the Poles from the entire territory along the Baltic and west of the Vistula (1147). The Emperor Frederick Barbarossa intervened and forced the humble submission of Bolesław (1157).

1173-1177. Mieszko III, a brutal and despotic prince who antagonized the nobility and was soon driven out by them.

1177-1194. CASIMIR II (*the Just*) was practically elected by the magnates, who extorted privileges from him. In the Assembly of Leuczyca (1180) the clergy was also given far-reaching concessions. Casimir attempted to preclude further strife by making Cracow and the primary hereditary in his own line.

1194-1227. Leszek I (*the White*) whose reign was punctuated by constant wars against Mieszko III, who attempted to regain the throne (d. 1202) and against the latter's son Vladislav Laskonogi (1202-1206). The period was one of complete feudal anarchy, with the nobility and clergy controlling the situation.

1227-1279. Bolesław V, an unhappy reign marked by complete disruption and by constant aggression by neighboring states.

1228. Arrival of the Teutonic Knights, called to Prussia by Duke Conrad of Masovia (p. 214). Within the next 50 years they conquered Prussia and erected a most formidable barrier to Polish access to the sea.

1241. Beginning of the great Mongol invasions (p. 202), of which there were constant renewals throughout the rest of the century. The Poles managed to stave off Mongol domination, but the country was devastated. One result was the calling in of large numbers of German settlers, some of whom cleared forest land and colonized new areas in Silesia and Posen, others of whom settled in the towns. In all cases large concessions in the direction of autonomy were made (*Magdeburg law*). The German influence meant greater and more efficient exploitation of the soil, development of trade, cultural advance.

1279-1288. Leszek II (*the Black*).

1288-1290. Further dynastic and feudal warfare, with the brief reign of Henry Probus.

1290-1296. Przemysław II. He was crowned king with the consent of the pope (1295), but was murdered soon afterward.

1300-1305. Wenceslas I, son of the King of Bohemia, elected by the nobility but challenged by claimants of the Piast family. He soon resigned the position and returned home. (*Cont.* p. 313.)

d. RUSSIA, TO 1263

The eastern Slavs settled on the territory of present-day European Russia in the period from the 5th to the 8th century A.D. Little is known of their political history during these centuries, but undoubtedly there were attempts at political organization in the shape of both tribal principalities and city-states formed around important commercial centers. In the 8th century some of the eastern Slavs were under the protectorate of the Khazars, a Turkish tribe which established a strong and prosperous

state along the *Volga*. At the end of the 8th century the northern part of Russia began to be penetrated by the Scandinavian vikings called in the old Russian chronicles *Varangians* or *Rus* (hence the name of *Russia*). In the course of the 9th century the Varangians constantly moved southward along the main waterway leading from the Baltic to the Black Sea, gradually establishing their political domination over the Slav communities. According to tradition, the Scandinavian chieftain *Rurik* (*Rorik*?) ruled in Novgorod in the 860's. Later he was recognized as the founder of the Russian princely dynasty.

860. The first recorded appearance of the Russians (*Varangians*) at Constantinople. This was a raid not unlike those of the Norsemen on Britain and France at the same period.

c. 880-912 PRINCE OLEG, who succeeded in uniting under his control both Novgorod and Kiev (on the Dnieper River). Kiev subsequently became the political center of a loose federation of Russian states.

911. The Russians again appeared at Constantinople and extracted trade privileges from the Byzantine emperor. Trade became a leading occupation of the Russian princes, who, with their followers (*druzhina*), protected the merchant ships. Russians also began to take service with the Greek emperors in considerable number and came to play an important rôle in the mercenary corps.

945. Further trade agreements with the Greek Empire testify to the ever closer economic connections and no doubt to an increasing cultural contact.

957. The Russian princess, Olga, visited Constantinople and was converted to the Christian faith. This was however, a purely personal conversion, and may in fact have been Olga's second.

964-972. SVIATOSLAV, the son of Olga. He was the first of the great conquering princes. In 967 he defeated the Khazars on the lower Volga and proceeded to establish a Russian state in place of the Khazar Empire. Called to the Balkans to aid the Greek emperor against the powerful Bulgars, he carried on a successful campaign (967) and decided to establish himself on the lower Danube. At this time his power extended from Novgorod in the north to the Danube in the southwest and to the lower Volga in the southeast. He was forced to abandon Bulgaria in order to resist the Patznaks (*Pechenegs*), who had

entered southern Russia from the east and were threatening Kiev. Having repulsed them (968), Sviatoslav returned to Bulgaria, but he was no more welcome to the Greeks than were the Bulgars. In 971 he was defeated and driven out by the Emperor John Zimisces (p. 180). Sviatoslav was defeated and killed by the Patznaks on his way back to Kiev (972).

972-978. A dynastic struggle between the sons of Sviatoslav ended in the victory of

978-1015. VLADIMIR THE SAINT, in whose reign (c. 990) the Russians were converted in mass to Christianity in the eastern (Byzantine) form. The Russian Church was organized on the Greek pattern and was considered to be under the canonical authority of the Patriarch of Constantinople. From this time on the cultural relation between Constantinople and Kiev was very close.

1015-1019. Further dynastic conflict between the sons of Vladimir.

1019-1054. IAROSLAV (the Wise), the greatest ruler of Russia in the Kievan period. He was finally successful in the struggle with his brother Sviatopolk, but was obliged to leave to another brother, Mstislav, that part of the principality east of the Dnieper River until Mstislav's death in 1036. Iaroslav was then supreme ruler of all Russia. Extensive building activity at Kiev (Cathedral of St. Sophia). Religious activity (metropolitan Hilarion and the Monastery of the Caves). Promotion of education. Revision of the *Russian Law* (the earliest known Russian law code), under Byzantine influence. Dynastic alliances with western states (Iaroslav's daughter, Anna, married Henry I of France).

The period following the death of Iaroslav the Great was one of disintegration and decline. Technically the primacy of Kiev continued and the power remained concentrated in the family of Iaroslav. Actually Kiev continued to lose in importance, and authority became divided between members of the princely family on a system of seniority and rotation, leading of necessity to much dynastic rivalry and countless combinations, sometimes with Poles and Hungarians.

At the same time the Kievan state was subjected to ever greater pressure from the nomads (Patznaks and Cumans) moving into southern Russia from the east. The period witnessed also a shifting of the older trade routes, due to the decline of the Baghdad Caliphate and the conquest of Constantinople (1204) by the Latin crusaders.

Emergence of new political centers. Galicia and Volynia in the southwest, principalities characterized by a strongly aristocratic form of government, Novgorod the Great, in the north, controlling territory to the east to the Ural. In Novgorod the assembly of freemen (*Vieche*) reached its fullest development, Suzdal-Vladimir in central Russia, the precursor of the Grand Duchy of Moscow. In this region the princely power was dominant.

1113-1125. VLADIMIR MONOMAKH,

Prince of Kiev. He carried on numerous campaigns against the Cumans of the steppes and his reign marked the last period of brilliance at Kiev, which soon thereafter became a bone of contention between the Princes of Volynia and Suzdal.

1147. First mention of Moscow in one of the chronicles.

1157-1174. ANDREI BOGOLIUBSKI,

Prince of Suzdal. He repressed the rising power of the nobles (*boyars*) united a large block of territory and established his capital at Vladimir.

1169. Andrei conquered Kiev, which became part of the Vladimir principality. But the new state underwent a marked decline on the death of the ruler.

1193-1205. Zenith of the Galician principality under Prince Roman.

1201. Foundation of Riga, which became the center of German missionary enterprise and commercial expansion.

1202. Foundation of the German Order of Swordbearers by Bishop Albert of Livonia (Latvia).

1219. Conquest of Estonia by Waldemar II of Denmark.

1223. BATTLE OF THE KAIKA RIVER, near the Sea of Azov. The Mongols (Tatars see p. 260), under Sahutai, invaded southern Russia from the Transcaucasus region and completely defeated a coalition of Russian princes and Curian leaders. They retired, however without pressing their conquests.

1226. The Teutonic Knights (p. 214) were commissioned to conquer and convert Prussia. They united with the Swordbearers in 1237.

1236-1263. ALEXANDER NEVSKI, prince first of Novgorod and after 1252 of Vladimir.

1237-1240. THE MONGOL CONQUEST, under the leadership of Batu. The great armies of the invaders swept over southern and central Russia and into Europe, coming within 60 miles of Nov-

gorod. They took Kiev (1240) and ultimately established themselves (1242) at Sarai on the lower Volga. The Khanate of the Golden Horde for two centuries thereafter acted as suzerain of all Russia, levying tribute and taking military contingents, but for the rest leaving the princes in control, respecting the Russian Church and interfering little.

1240. Alexander Nevski defeated the Swedes under Birger Jarl on the Neva River and thus broke the force of the Swedish advance.

1242. Alexander defeated the Teutonic Knights in a battle on Lake Peipus.

1252. As Prince of Vladimir, Alexander Nevski did his utmost to prevent insurrections against Tatar rule and built up a system of protection based upon submission and conciliation.

1253. Daniel of Volynia attempted to organize a crusade against the Tatars. In order to secure papal aid he accepted the union of the Russian Church with Rome, but his efforts came to nothing.

1263. Death of Alexander Nevski on his way back from the Golden Horde.

RUSSIAN CULTURE in this period was still primarily religious and largely Byzantine in character. Noteworthy churches were built at Kiev, Novgorod, and Chernov in the 11th and 12th centuries, decorated with fine frescoes. Church literature was active and there appeared further the first chronicles and epics of fights against the nomads. (Cont. p. 316)

e. HUNGARY, TO 1301

896. The Hungarians, organized in a number of tribes of which the Magyars were the leading one, occupied the valley of the middle Danube and Thess. Under Arpad (d. 907) they had come from southern Russia by way of Moldavia, driven on by the Patzavaks (Pechenegs) and other Asiatic peoples. The Hungarians were themselves nomads of the Finno-Ugric family. For more than half a century after their occupation of Hungary they continued their raids, both toward the east and toward the west.

906. The Hungarians destroyed the rising Slav kingdom of Moravia.

955. Battle of Augsburg, in which Emperor Otto I decisively defeated the raiding Hungarians. From this time on the Hungarians began to settle down and establish a frontier.

972-997. Geza, Duke of the Magyar tribe, and the organizer of the princely power. He began to reduce the tribal leaders and invited Christian missionaries from Germany (Pilgrim of Passau, 974; St. Adalbert of Prague, 991). Christianization had already begun from the east, and was furthered by large numbers of war prisoners.

997-1038. **ST STEPHEN (I)**, greatest ruler of the Arpad dynasty. He suppressed eastern Christianity by force and crusaded against paganism, which was still favored by the tribal chiefs. Stephen took his stand definitely by the west, married a Bavarian princess, called in Roman churchmen and monks (Benedictines) and endowed them with huge tracts of land. With the help of the clergy he broke the power of the tribal chieftains, took over their land as royal domain, administered through counts (*ispán*), placed over counties (*comitat*). The counts and high churchmen formed a royal council. Every encouragement was given to agriculture and trade and a methodical system of frontier defense was built up (large belt of swamps and forests, wholly uninhabited and protected by regular frontier guards, as time went on this frontier was gradually extended).

1001. Stephen was crowned with a crown sent by the pope. He was canonized in 1083.

1002. Stephen defeated an anti-Christian insurrection in Transylvania.

1030. Attacks of the Germans under Conrad II, who tried to enforce German suzerainty over Hungary, were repulsed.

1038-1077. A period of dynastic struggles over the succession, every member of the Arpad family claiming a share of the power, and sometimes calling in the Germans for support.

1038-1046. Peter Urseolo, son of Stephen's sister and the Doge of Venice, succeeded to the throne. He called in German and Italian favorites, aroused the hostility of the Hungarians and was driven out (1041). For a few years Samuel Aba, the brother-in-law of Stephen, occupied the throne, but he in turn was expelled by Peter, who returned with the Emperor Henry III, to whom he swore fealty.

1046. Peter was overthrown in the course of a great pagan rising of the tribal chiefs under Vatha, who massacred the Christians and destroyed the churches. This was the last serious revolt of the kind.

1047-1061. Andrew I, who managed to restore the royal power.

1049-1052. The three campaigns of Emperor Henry III against the Hungarians. Andrew managed to hold his own and in 1053 the emperor recognized Hungary's independence of the empire.

1061-1063. Bela I, brother of Andrew and popular hero of the campaigns against the Germans.

1063-1074. Solomon, the son of Andrew, the candidate of the German party. He was defeated by his cousin.

1074-1077. Geza I.

1077-1095. **ST LADISLAS I** (canonized 1192), the first great king after St. Stephen. He supported the pope in his conflicts with the emperor, and at home restored order and prosperity.

1091. Ladislas conquered Croatia and Bosnia, but left these regions self-government under a ban.

1095-1114. Coloman (*Kalman*) I. Another strong ruler, who, in

1097-1102. Conquered Dalmatia from the Venetian Republic.

1114-1131. Stephen II, in whose reign the dynastic struggles were resumed.

1131-1141. Bela II. He had been blinded by Coloman, and now took a horrible revenge on his opponents.

1141-1162. Geza II. The intestine conflicts were greatly complicated by the efforts of the Greek emperor, Manuel, to extend his sway over Hungary. But a number of campaigns carried out to this end (1097-1102) led to no success, though at one time (1156) the Hungarians recognized Byzantine suzerainty.

1150. Saxon (i.e. Germans from the Moselle region) settlement in the Zips and southern Transylvania regions. They were called in to help defend the frontiers against Poland and against the Greeks, and had much to do with developing agriculture, trade, and town-building. In this period many Pechebegs and Szeklers were also established for frontier protection.

1162-1172. Stephen III.

1172-1196. **BELA III**, who had been educated at Constantinople. He married the sister of Philip Augustus of France and established a close dynastic connection with France. Bela was a strong ruler who successfully defended Dalmatia against Venice.

1196-1204. Emeric I, whose position was challenged by his brother Andrew.

1204-1205. Ladislas III, dethroned by Andrew.

1205-1235. **ANDREW II.** The most disastrous reign in the Arpad period.

Andrew was renowned for his extravagance and for his generosity to his foreign favorites. A crusade to the Holy Land (1217) cost him much money, which he raised by alienating huge tracts of the royal domain, thus paving the way for the emergence of large landed magnates or oligarchs

1222. THE GOLDEN BULL, forced upon

Andrew by the lesser nobility or gentry, led by Andrew's own son, Bela. This document became the charter of feudal privilege. It exempted the gentry and the clergy from taxation, granted them freedom to dispose of their domains as they saw fit, guaranteed them against arbitrary imprisonment and confiscation and assured them an annual assembly to present grievances. No lands or offices were to be given to foreigners or Jews

1224. The privileges of the Transylvanian Saxons were set down. They were given practical self-government, directly under the king

1235-1270. BELA IV. A strong ruler who tried desperately to make good the losses of the preceding reign. The magnates, in reply, attempted to set up a rival ruler, and Bela in turn allowed some 40,000 families of the Cumans, who were driven westward by the Mongol invasions, to settle in the Theiss region in the hope of securing support against the magnates

1241. THE GREAT MONGOL INVASION, which took the country by

surprise in the midst of its dissensions. Bela's army was overwhelmingly defeated at Muhi on the Theiss and he was obliged to flee to the Adriatic. The Mongols followed him, but suddenly gave up their conquests when news arrived of the death of the Great Khan. But the Mongol invasion left the country devastated. For defense purposes the nobility was allowed to build castles and these soon became bases for feudal warfare and for campaigns against the king himself

1246. Bela defeated Frederick of Austria, the last of the Babenbergs, who had taken advantage of the Mongol invasion to appropriate some of the western provinces

1265-1270. Wars of Bela against Ottokar II of Bohemia.

1270-1272. Stephen V, a weak ruler.

1272-1290. Ladislas IV. His efforts to curb the feudal aristocracy were of little avail, but in alliance with Rudolph of Hapsburg he succeeded in breaking the power of Ottokar in the battle of Durnkrut (1278)

1290-1301. Andrew III, last of the native dynasty. He continued the struggle against the domination of the feudal aristocracy, but with little success.

(Cont p. 317)

f. SERBIA, TO 1276

650 Approximate date of the completion of the Slav occupation of the Balkan area. Part of the Slav people extended as far west as Carniola and Carinthia, but these (the Slovenes) were conquered by the Franks in the early 9th century and were thenceforth part of the German Empire

818 The Croats, who had also been conquered by the Franks, revolted, but were again subdued

924 Tomislav became King of Croatia, accepting his crown from the pope. He ruled over later-day Croatia and over the territory as far south as Montenegro, though the coastal towns were mostly under Byzantine control

960. Death of Chaslav, who made the first effort to unite the Serbs. The Serbs, inhabiting a mountainous area, were divided into tribes and clans, under headmen or *zupans*. The grand *zupan* held an honorary pre-eminence. Technically the territory was under Byzantine suzerainty, which, when the Eastern Empire was strong, was effectively exercised. By the end of the 10th century the inhabitants of present-day Serbia and eastern Bosnia had for the most part accepted eastern Christianity, while western Bosnia and Croatia leaned toward Roman Catholicism. But the conflict of the churches drew the southern Slavs this way and that, becoming frequently an important political as well as religious issue.

1077. Mikhail of Serbia was crowned by a papal legate

1081-1101 Bodin established a Serbian state in Zeta (i.e. Montenegro)

1102. Croatia was joined with Hungary in a dynastic union, after the defeat of the last ruler, Petar, by King Ladislas. This involved the definitive victory of the western orientation in Croatia and the separation from the other southern Slavs

1168-1196. STEPHEN NEMANYA, founder of the Nemanyid dynasty in the Raska (i.e. *Rascia* or Serbia proper). Though only grand *zupan*, Stephen appears to have made considerable progress in uniting the various clans. He definitely adopted the Greek Orthodox faith and persecuted the Bogomils, who were forced across the frontier into Bosnia which at

that time was ruled by a strong prince, Kulin (d. 1204). The death of Manuel I Comnenus (1180) and the subsequent decline of the Eastern Empire gave Stephen an opportunity to establish his independence of Constantinople and to conquer extensive territories to the south. In 1196 he retired to a monastery on Mt Athos which had been founded by his son, St Sava. Stephen died in 1200.

1196-1223 STEPHEN NEMANYA II, the son of the preceding. The beginning of his reign was marked by a struggle with his elder brother, Vukan, to whom Montenegro had been assigned. The Hungarians, who became an ever greater menace to Serbia, supported Vukan, and Stephen was forced to flee to the Bulgarian court. He returned with an army of Cumans supplied by Kaloyan (see below), who appropriated for himself most of eastern Serbia, including Belgrade and Nish. Stephen's brother, St Sava, finally mediated between the two contestants and Stephen became ruler of Serbia proper.

1217. Stephen was crowned king by a papal legate (hence *Stephen the First-Crowned*).

1219 St Sava, fearful of the Roman influence, visited Nicaea and induced the Greek patriarch to recognize him as archbishop of all Serbia and as head of an autocephalous church.

1222 Stephen was recrowned by St Sava with a crown from Nicaea, thus re-establishing the eastern orientation.

1223-1234. Radoslav, the son of Stephen, a weak ruler, who was deposed by his brother.

1234-1242. Vladislav. He married a daughter of Tsar John Asen II of Bulgaria and during this period much of eastern Serbia was under Bulgarian domination.

1242-1276. Urosh I, brother of the preceding two rulers. He married a daughter of the deposed Latin emperor, Baldwin II, and established an alliance with Charles of Anjou, heir of the Latin claims to Constantinople.

1254 The Hungarians, who already held part of northern Serbia, established their suzerainty over Bosnia and Herzegovina (*Cont. p 318*).

g. THE SECOND BULGARIAN EMPIRE

Following the collapse of the First Bulgarian Empire in 681 Bulgaria was, for

168 years, an integral part of the Byzantine Empire. The more stringent taxation and other grievances led to a serious revolt in 1040, led by Peter Deljan, a son of Gabriel Radomir, and confined to the northwest and western parts of the former empire. Deljan had himself proclaimed *tsar*, but the movement suffered from his rivalry with Tikhomir of *Durazzo*. In 1041 Deljan was defeated and captured by the imperial troops. Another uprising, led by George Voitech, in 1072-1073, never assumed the same proportions and was suppressed without much difficulty. During the Byzantine period the country was constantly exposed to marauding raids by the Patzinaks (1048-1051), many of whom settled in north-eastern Bulgaria, and by invasions of the Cumans (1004). The Bogomil heresy continued to spread, despite persecution by the government (1110 ff.). Under the leadership of the monks it became to a certain extent a reaction to the Greek influence exerted by the higher clergy.

1185. RISING OF JOHN AND PETER ASEN, two Bulgarian lords from the vicinity of Turnovo. Defeated by the Emperor Isaac Angelus (1186) they fled to the Cumans and returned with an army of the latter. After raiding into Thrace, they accepted a truce which left them in possession of Bulgaria north of the Balkan Mountains.

1189. The Asens attempted to effect an alliance with Frederick Barbarossa and the leaders of the Third Crusade, against the Greeks. This came to nothing, but the Bulgarians resumed their raids into Thrace and Macedonia. An imperial army under Isaac Angelus was completely defeated in a battle near Berrhoe.

1196. Peter Asen succeeded to leadership of the movement after the murder of John by boyar (i.e. noble) conspirators.

1197. Peter himself fell a victim to his boyar rivals.

1197-1207. KALOYAN (Joannitsa), the younger brother of John and Peter. He made peace with the Greeks (1201) and then engaged (1202) in campaigns against the Serbs (taking of Nish) and the Hungarians, whom he drove back over the Danube.

1204. The collapse of the Eastern Empire (p. 254) gave Kaloyan an excellent opportunity to reaffirm his dominion. By recognizing the primacy of the pope, he succeeded in securing the appointment of a primate for Bulgaria and in getting himself crowned *king* by the papal legate. At the same time he took over the whole of western

- 1205** Supported by the Cumans and the local Greeks, Kaloyan completely defeated the Frankish crusaders near Adrianople and captured the Emperor Baldwin I.
- 1206.** Kaloyan put down a revolt of the Greeks and besieged Adrianople and Thessalonica. He was murdered in 1207.
- 1207-1218.** Boril, the nephew of Kaloyan, whose position was not recognized by all other leaders, some of whom attempted to set up independent principalities.
- 1208.** Boril was completely defeated by the Franks under Henry I in the battle of Philippopolis, and ultimately (1213) was obliged to make peace.
- 1217.** Ivan (*John*) Asen, son of Kaloyan, supported by the Russians, began a revolt in northern Bulgaria. He besieged and took Turnovo, and captured and blinded Boril (1218).
- 1218-1241.** JOHN ASEN II, whose reign marked the apogee of the Second Bulgarian Empire. John was a mild and generous ruler, much beloved even by the Greek population.
- 1228-1230** Owing to the youthfulness of the Emperor Baldwin II, a number of Frank nobles at Constantinople projected making John Asen emperor and thereby securing themselves against the aggression of Theodore of Epirus (p. 260). The scheme was opposed by the Latin clergy and ultimately came to nothing.
- 1230.** John Asen defeated Theodore of Epirus at Klokotnitsa on the Maritza River and captured him. He then occupied all of western Thrace, Macedonia, and even northern Albania leaving Thessalonica and Epirus to Theodore's brother Manuel, who became his vassal.
- 1232.** John broke with Rome and the Bulgarian Church became independent.
- 1235.** Alliance of John with the Greek emperor of Nicaea against the Franks. The Greeks recognized the patriarch of Turnovo. Together the allies besieged Constantinople, which was relieved by a fleet and forces from Achaia.
- 1236.** The Hungarians, instigated by the pope began to threaten the Bulgarians and forced John to withdraw from operations against the Latin Empire.
- 1241-1246.** KALMAN I, the son of John Asen II. His reign was distinguished chiefly by the great incursion of the Mongols, returning from the expedition into central Europe (1241).
- 1246-1257** Michael Asen, the youngest son of John and a mere child. The Nicaean emperor, John Vatatzes, took advantage of the situation to conquer all southern Thrace and Macedonia, while Michael of Epirus appropriated western Macedonia.
- 1254.** On the death of John Vatatzes, Michael Asen attempted to recover the lost territories, but was badly defeated by Theodore II Lascaris at Adrianople and later (1256) in Macedonia.
- 1257-1268.** KALMAN II, who, with support of the boyars, drove out Michael Asen, only to be deposed and expelled in his turn. He was the last ruler of the Asen dynasty.

(Cont p. 325)

3. THE NEAR EAST

a THE EASTERN EMPIRE, 1025-1204

The period of the later Macedonian emperors (to 1050) and the succeeding thirty years was a period of decline, marked by the rule of women, barbarian invasions in the Balkans, the advance of the Normans in Italy and the expansion of the Seljuk Turks (p. 254) in Anatolia. Within the empire there was a steady development of the clerical and bureaucratic nobility in the capital and of the feudal baronage in the provinces, leading ultimately to sharp conflict between the two interests.

- 1025-1028.** CONSTANTINE VIII, the younger brother of Basil II, a man suspicious of the military commanders, who granted many high offices to court favorites.
- 1027** The Patzinaks, who had invaded the Balkans were finally driven back over the Danube by the general, Constantine Diogenes.
- 1028-1050** ZOË, empress. She was the third daughter of Constantine and, though 48 years old at her accession, married three times, associating her husbands in the imperial office.

1028-1034 **ROMANUS III** *(aged 40)*, an official 60 years old, first husband of Zoe. He made great efforts to gain popularity by catering to the populace, the nobility, and especially the Church. The patriarchate was permitted to persecute the Monophysites of Syria, thousands of whom fled to Moslem territory. The hatred engendered by this policy helps to explain the Seljuk advance in subsequent years.

1030. Romanus suffered a severe defeat in a campaign against the Moslem emirs who attacked Syria.

1031. The situation was saved by the victories of Georgios Maniakes, greatest imperial general of the period.

1032. A combined Byzantine-Ragusan fleet completely defeated the Saracen pirates in the Adriatic.

1034-1041 **MICHAEL IV** (*the Paphlagonian*), second husband of Zoe. He was a man of lowly origin, who promptly established his brothers (mostly men of energy and ability) in high office.

1034-1035. The Byzantine fleets, manned by the Norseman Harald Hardrada and Scandinavian mercenaries, repeatedly defeated the Saracen pirates off the Anatolian coast and ravaged the coasts of North Africa.

1035. Maniakes and Hardrada, with Scandinavian and Italian mercenaries and with the support of the Byzantine fleets, stormed Messina and defeated the Sicilian Saracens first at Rametta (1038), then at Dragna (1040).

1040. Revolt of the Bulgarians under Peter Delfan, a descendant of Tsar Samuel. The revolt was directed against the harsh fiscal policy of the government. The Bulgars attacked Thessalonica, but the city held out. Ultimately the movement collapsed, as the result of dissension among the leaders. Bulgaria was then incorporated in the empire and the autocephalous church of Ohrid became a prey of the patriarchal hierarchy.

1041-1042 **MICHAEL V** (*Kalaphates*) one of Zoe's favorites. He attempted to secure sole power by shutting the empress in a cloister, but this led to a rising of the Constantinople nobility and to the incarceration of Michael in a monastery.

1042-1054. **CONSTANTINE IX** (*Afthonos*), the third husband of Zoe, a scholarly person, wholly out of sympathy with the army and with the military aristocracy. He systematically neglected the frontier defenses and the forces

1042. Maniakes totally defeated the Normans, who had begun the attack on southern Italy, in the battle of Monopoli (near Naples).

1043. Revolt of Maniakes, representing the disaffection of the military classes. Maniakes landed at Durazzo and prepared to march on the capital, but he was accidentally shot and killed on the way.

1046. The Byzantine forces occupied Ani and took over the government of Armenia which became another field for clerical exploitation.

1047. Another military uprising led by Leo Tornikios, failed.

1048. The imperial generals defeated the advancing Seljuk armies at Stragna.

1050. Death of Zoe. Her husband Constantine continued to reign alone.

1051. Expulsion of the Patzinaks from Bulgaria, after years of ravaging and unsuccessful Byzantine campaigns.

1054-1056. **THEODORA**, empress. She was the elder sister of Zoe, an intelligent, vigorous, and popular ruler, but already advanced in age.

1054. Final schism between Rome and Constantinople. The long-standing friction between the papacy and the eastern patriarch had come to a head with the conquest of parts of southern Italy by the Normans, who were supported by the papacy. The Patriarch Michael Kerularios disputed the claim of Pope Leo IX to jurisdiction in southern Italy. Negotiations were opened, but each side assumed an uncompromising attitude and the rift became unavoidable. The unity it left behind was of the utmost importance for the development of the next years.

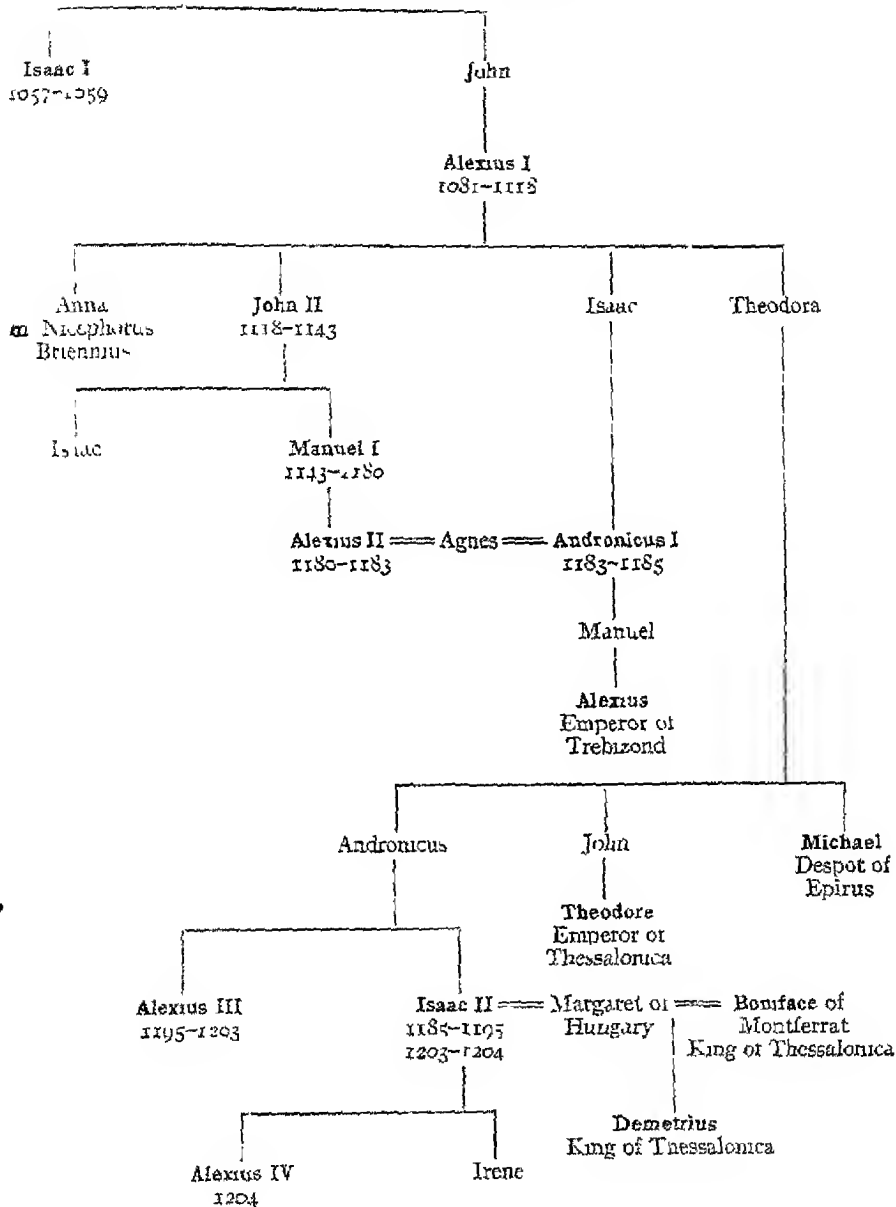
1056-1057 **MICHAEL VI** (*Stratioticus*), who was overthrown almost at once by a revolt of the Anatolian feudal barons.

1057-1059. **ISAAC COMNENUS**, proclaimed by the insurgents. He was an able and energetic army man, who promptly abolished a host of sinecures, undertook the reform of the finances, etc. Isaac, already advanced in years, soon found his work too arduous and abdicated in favor of

1059-1067. **CONSTANTINE X** (*Dukas*), a high official of the finance department. Constantine introduced a period of domination by the civil officials, Church and scholars, during which the army was viewed with suspicion, neglected, and driven into hostility.

- 1060 The Normans took Rheg o completing the conquest of Calabria.
1064. The Seljuks, under Alp Arslan, took Ani and ravaged Armenia.
1065. The Cumans, having crossed the Danube, flooded the Balkan area as far as Thessalonica. They were finally driven back by local forces.
- 1067-1071. ROMANUS DIOGENES, who, on Constantine's death, married the widowed empress, Eudoxa. Romanus was an ambitious soldier, who did his best to check the advance of the enemy in the east and the west.
1068. The Normans took Otranto, and then Bari (1071), the last Byzantine outpost. This marked the end of the Byzantine rule in Italy.
- 1068-1069. Romanus succeeded in repulsing the Seljuks, though they repeatedly raided through the whole of eastern Anatolia.
1071. BATTLE OF MANZIKERT (north of Lake Van). Romanus had concentrated huge forces for a decisive battle, and he rejected all offers of a settlement. In the course of a hard-fought battle he was deserted by Andronicus Ducas and other Byzantine magnates. Romanus was defeated and captured, but then released by the Seljuks. He attempted to regain the Byzantine throne, but was defeated by his opponents and blinded. He died very soon afterward.
- 1071-1078. MICHAEL VII (*Parapinakos*), a son of Constantine X. His elevation meant another victory for the bureaucratic group. Michael made the great scholar, Michael Psellus, his chief adviser and devoted himself to the pursuit of learning. The military system was again allowed to fall into neglect.
1074. The emperor concluded a treaty with the Seljuks in order to secure their aid against his uncle, who had set himself up as a pretender. The Seljuks defeated the pretender, but took advantage of the situation to spread themselves over a large part of Anatolia.
1078. Revolt of Nicephorus Briennius in Albania. Another military revolt broke out in Anatolia, led by Nicephorus Botaniates, who was supported by the Seljuks.
- 1078-1081. NICEPHORUS III (*Botanik*), emperor after Michael's abdication. His accession was greeted by a number of insurrections in various parts of the army, but these were suppressed by the able general Alexius Comnenus.
1081. Revolt of Alexius Comnenus himself. He seized Constantinople with a force of mercenaries, who thereupon plundered the capital. The victory of Comnenus meant the final success of the military aristocracy and the beginning of a new period of military success.
- 1081-1118. ALEXIUS COMNENUS, an able general, vigorous administrator, conscientious ruler and shrewd diplomat. Having to rely upon the great feudal families, he attempted to win their support by lavish grants of honors and ranks. At the same time he tried to use the high clergy to counterbalance the influence of the nobility. He reformed the judicial and financial systems and systematically used his resources in money to buy off the enemies he could not conquer.
- 1081-1085. The war against the Normans under Robert Guiscard. The latter landed in Epirus with a large force and besieged Durazzo (*Dyrrachium*). Alexius bought the support of the Venetians with extensive trade privileges (1082), but Guiscard defeated the emperor in the battle of Pharasalus, after which he took Durazzo. The war was continued by Robert's son, Bohemund, who again defeated Alexius and in 1083 conquered all Macedonia as far as the Vardar. But the advance was broken by the resistance of Larissa, by the guerrilla tactics of the natives (who hated the heretical Latins), and by the Seljuk cavalry employed by the emperor. In 1085 the combined Byzantine and Venetian fleets defeated the Normans near Corfu. The death of Robert Guiscard at the same time led to disension among his sons and the abandonment of the Balkan project.
- 1086-1091. Revolt of the Bogomils in Thrace and Bulgaria. The heretics were supported by the Patzinaks and Cumans and were able to defeat Alexius and a large army (battle of Drystra or Dorostolon, 1087). The Cumans then ravaged the entire eastern Balkan region as far as Constantinople until Alexius bought them off, took them into imperial service and used them (1091) to annihilate the Patzinaks (battle of Lebunum).
1092. Death of Malik Shah, ruler of the Seljuk empire of Iconium, which controlled almost all of Anatolia. The death of Malik led to disputes as to the succession and paved the way for the partial reconquest of Anatolia.
1094. Constantine Diogenes, a pretender to the throne, crossed the Danube with an army of Cumans and besieged Adrianople, but was then defeated in the battle of Taurocomon.
- 1096-1097. THE FIRST CRUSADE (p. 255). The crusaders of whom

The Comneni and Angeli



Bohemund was one of the leaders, were looked upon with great suspicion in the east, where there was little interest in a movement organized by the heretical Latin pope. But Alexius was unable to stop the

crusaders, and therefore devoted himself to managing the movement. He induced them to promise to do homage to the empire for all territory reconquered from the infidel. The crusading victories at Nicaea

and *Do glaum* (997) enabled Alexis to recover the entire western coast of Anatolia.

1098-1108. Second war with the Normans.

The crusaders, having regained Antioch (lost to the Turks only in 1085), turned it over to Bohemund, who refused to recognize Alexis' suzerainty. War broke out. Bohemund returned to Italy and raised a huge army, with which he appeared in Eprius (1104). He failed in his siege of Durazzo, and Alexis wisely avoided open battle. Ultimately (1108) Bohemund agreed to make peace, recognizing Byzantine suzerainty over Antioch.

1110-1117. War against the Seljuks, who again advanced to the Bosphorus. In 1116 Alexis won a resounding victory at Philomelion, which induced the Turks to make peace at Akroinon (1117); they abandoned the entire coastal area of Anatolia (north, west, and south) and all of Anatolia west of a line from Sinope through Ancyra (Ankara) and Philomelion.

1111. Trade privileges granted to the Pisans. This was part of the emperor's effort to draw the Pisans away from the Normans and at the same time to counterbalance the extensive trade position of the Venetians in the empire.

1118-1143. **JOHN COMNENUS**, a ruler of high moral integrity, mild, brave, and sincere. He devoted his attention chiefly to the east, with the object of recovering the old frontier of the Euphrates and of subjecting the Latin states of Syria to the empire.

1120-1121. In a successful campaign against the Seljuks, John recovered southwestern Anatolia. He was diverted from further conquests by continued incursions of the Patzinaks in the Balkans.

1122. The Patzinaks were completely defeated and thenceforth were no longer a threat to the empire.

1122-1126. War with Venice, resulting from John's refusal to renew the extensive trading privileges, which the Venetians had been exploring to the full. The Venetian fleets ravaged the islands of the Aegean, occupied Corfu and Cephalonia, and ultimately (1126) forced John to renew the privileges.

1124. Intervention of the emperor in behalf of Bela II in Hungary, initiating a policy which continued throughout the century. The objective of the Comneni was to prevent the Hungarians from establishing control over the Slavic regions of Dalmatia, Croatia and Serbia. By the Peace of 1126 the emperor se-

cured Braniceva, a vital bridgehead on the Danube.

1134-1137. Conquest of Cilician (Little) Armenia, which was allied with the Latin Kingdom of Antioch. John forced Raymond of Antioch to do homage for his domain.

1142. John died from a wound incurred while hunting. He was just about to renew his campaigns in Syria.

1143-1180. **MANUEL COMNENUS**, the son of John, a noble, intelligent, chivalrous idealist, and yet an adroit statesman and ambitious soldier. He was the greatest of the Comneni and the most splendid. In his reign Constantinople came to be accepted as the capital of the world and the center of culture. Its brilliant art was imitated in the east as in the west. Manuel married a Latin princess (Maria of Antioch) and throughout his career cherished the hope of resurrecting a universal empire. Hence his association with and employment of Latin nobles, who intermarried with the Greek aristocracy, his constant toying with the idea of reunion with Rome, his designs on Italian territory and his antagonism to the Hohenstaufen emperors. All this tended to arouse much hostility among the Greeks (accentuated by the high-handed activities of the Italian traders), cost the empire inordinate sums of money and involved repeated conflict with the Normans. The emperor's preoccupation in the west at the same time forced him to neglect the east, where the Seljuk Sultanate of Iconium (Rum) was able to effect a marked recovery.

1147-1158. War with Roger of Sicily. The Norman fleets ravaged Euboea and Attica, took and plundered Thebes and Corinth, carried away large numbers of the silk-workers, who were established at Palermo. The emperor, having neglected the Byzantine fleet, was obliged to buy the aid of Venice with extensive trading rights (1148). The Venetians helped to reconquer Corfu (1149) and paved the way for the Byzantine conquest of Ancona (1151). But efforts to extend the Greek power in Italy met with failure (1154) and Manuel in the end had to agree to an inconclusive peace (1158).

1147-1149. **THE SECOND CRUSADE** (p. 256). The crusaders, having plundered the Balkan region, almost came to blows with the Greeks at Constantinople, but Manuel by diplomacy prevented a clash. The Greeks did nothing to prevent the defeat of the crusaders in Anatolia.

1152-1154. Successful war against the Hungarians, who attempted to

make good their claims to Serbia and Bosnia. Peace was made in 1156, the Hungarians recognizing the emperor's suzerainty.

1155. Trade privileges granted to Genoa, the emperor hoping thereby to counteract the domination of the Venetians.

1158-1159. An expedition against Raymond of Antioch forced the latter to renew his homage.

1161. Kılıç Arslan IV, Sultan of Rum, made peace with the empire, recognizing the emperor's primacy.

1165-1168. War with the Hungarians. The imperial forces took Dalmatia and in the final peace (1168) received also part of Croatia. The following years Manuel interferred actively in Hungarian dynastic affairs. Bela III (1173-1196) was practically his vassal.

1170-1177. War with Venice, the natural result of the Byzantine acquisitions in Dalmatia and in Italy. The emperor arrested all Venetian traders in Constantinople and confiscated their goods, but with a neglected fleet he was able to do little. The Venetians conquered Ragusa (1171) and Chios (1171), though they failed in an attack on Ancona (1173). In 1175 the Venetians made an alliance with the Normans against the empire and thereby forced Manuel to yield. By the Peace of 1176 the trade privileges were renewed and the emperor paid a heavy indemnity.

1176-1177. War against the Seljuks. The Byzantines were defeated at Myriosephalon (1176), but in the next year Manuel defeated the enemy in Bithynia, while John Vatatzes drove them out of the Meander Valley.

1180-1183. MANUEL ALEXIUS II, the son of Manuel, who ruled under the regency of his mother, Maria of Antioch. The regent rebelled almost entirely upon Latins in her service.

1182. Revolt of the populace of Constantinople against the Latins, officials, and traders who were brutally cut down in a great massacre. The mob forced the proclamation of

1182-1185. ANDRONICUS COMNENUS, an uncle of the boy-emperor, who ruled first as co-emperor, but in 1183 had Alexius strangled and became sole ruler. Andronicus had intrigued innumerable times against Manuel and was renowned for his lack of principle. But he was a man of great personal charm, intelligent, vigorous, unscrupulous, and cruel. Through per-

secution, confiscations, and executions he cleaned the court circle, got rid of the hated Latins, abolished sale of offices, sinecures, etc., reformed the judiciary, lightened the taxes. All this was a policy directed against the powerful official and landed aristocracy and might, had it been carried through, have led to a thoroughgoing reform of the empire.

1185. The Norman attack. The Normans took Durazzo, sent an army and a navy against Thessalonica, which they stormed and massacred the Greeks. This attack led to a revolt of the Greek nobility against Andronicus, who was deposed, tortured, and executed.

1185-1195. ISAAC ANGELUS, leader of the insurgents. His accession meant a return of the old negligence and corruption. Within a brief space the entire empire began to go to pieces. In the provinces the powerful feudal families (the Sgouros in Greece, Gabras at Trebizond) began to set up as independent potentates.

1185. Victory of the Byzantine general, Alexius Branas, over the Normans at Demetritsa. By 1191 the Normans were driven out of the Balkans and even out of Durazzo and Corfu.

1186-1188. The great insurrection in Bulgaria, led by Peter and John Asen. This was due primarily to the extortion of the imperial fiscal agents. The revolt was supported by the Cumans and resulted in the devastation of much of the Balkan region, with the annihilation of much of the Greek population. Though at times successful, the Greek commanders were unable to suppress the movement, which resulted in the formation of a new Bulgarian state north of the Balkan Mountains (1188).

1187. Fall of Jerusalem. Isaac, in fear of another crusade, allied himself with Saladin.

1189. THE THIRD CRUSADE (p. 256). Frederick Barbarossa was welcomed in Bulgaria by John Asen, who offered him an army for use against the empire. But Frederick avoided friction as well as might be, and Isaac did not oppose the crossing of the crusaders into Anatolia. The death of Saladin (1193) relieved the danger from the east.

1190-1194. Continuation of the war in Bulgaria. The Byzantine forces were defeated at Berrhoe (1190) and at Arcadiopolis (1194).

1195-1203. ALEXIUS III, the brother of Isaac, whom he deposed and blinded.

1196. The western emperor, Henry VI, heir to the Norman domains, demanded Durazzo and Thessalonica. Alexius settled for a huge money payment, and Henry's death (1197) removed the immediate threat from that quarter.

1201. Peace with the Bulgars, who were allowed to retain most of the eastern Balkan area, under the younger brother of the Asens, John (*Jovan-uisa, Kalojan*, 1197-1207).

1202-1204. THE FOURTH CRUSADE

(p. 256) The leaders were the Venetian doge, Enrico Dandolo, and Boniface of Montferrat. Alexius, the son of Isaac, appealed for aid against his uncle and promised great concessions. Dandolo succeeded in diverting the expedition against Constantinople. The crusaders took Durazzo (1203) and arrived at Constantinople (June, 1203). The emperor thereupon fled to Adrianople (July). His deposed brother, Isaac, was set upon the throne with his son, the accomplice of the crusaders.

1203-1204. ALEXIUS IV. He was wholly under the control of the crusaders and was forced to pay a heavy tribute. Popular discontent led to

1204, Jan. 25. A revolution and the proclamation of

1204. Alexius V (Ducas). Alexius IV was killed. The new ruler refused payments to the crusaders and demanded their withdrawal.

Apr. 12. The crusaders stormed the city, which was given over to a merciless sack. The emperor succeeded in escaping. (*Cont. p. 258.*)

b. THE SELJUK TURKS

1037. The Seljuks, a sept of the Ghuzz Turks, under the brothers Tughril Beg and Chagar Beg, invaded Khorasan and defeated the Ghaznavid armies. They then conquered Balkh, Jurjan, Tabaristan, and Khwarizm.

1055. Entry of Tughril Beg into Baghdad, where he was proclaimed *sultan*, with the title *King of the East and the West*. Invasion of Byzantine Cappadocia and Phrygia by Tughril Beg.

1063-1073. Alp Arslan, brilliant nephew of Tughril, succeeded the latter. He conquered Georgia and Armenia.

1071. BATTLE OF MANZIKERT (Malaz Kard). Alp Arslan defeated the Byzantine emperor, Diogenes Romanus, and virtually destroyed the Byzantine power in Asia Minor.

1073-1092. Malik Shah, son of Alp Arslan.

His vizier, Nizam al-Mulk, was one of the ablest administrators ever produced by Asia. At the same time he was a patron of learning, founder of colleges in Baghdad (the *Nizamuya*) and other principal cities. Under him was undertaken the reform of the calendar by the famous poet,

Omar Khayyam.

1084. The Seljuks took Antioch.

1090. Rise of the Ismailian fraternity of the Assassins, founded by Hasan Sabbah, a schoolfellow of Nizam al-Mulk, and a Fatimid propagandist. He captured the mountain stronghold of Alamut in the Elburz range in Mazendran. The Assassins later became masters of many mountain fortresses in northern Persia, Iraq, and Syria. The crusaders came into contact with the Syrian branch.

1091. Nizam al-Mulk was murdered by one of Hasan's emissaries, after two expeditions against the Assassins had failed.

1092. Barkiyaruk (Rukn al-Din), son of Malik Shah, sultan. Civil war broke out between the new ruler and his brother, Mohammed, over Iran and Khorasan, and separate branches of the Seljuk family attained virtual independence in different parts of the empire, although the main line still preserved the nominal sovereignty down to 1157. The Seljuk Empire of the East ultimately fell before the attack of the Khwarizm Shah (1157). The Seljuks of Kirman (1041-1187) were overthrown by the Ghuzz Turcomans, the Seljuks of Syria (1094-1177) by the Burids and Ortugids, the Seljuks of Iraq and Kurdistan (1117-1194) by the Shahs of Khwarizm. The Seljuks of Rum (Iconium, Konia), who ruled most of Anatolia, absorbed the Danishmandid principedom in Cappadocia, but were ousted by the Mongols and the Oghmanli (Ottoman) Turks.

(p. 325)

1100-1200. During the 12th century the whole of the Seljuk Empire, excepting Rum, fell into the hands of captains of the Seljuk armies, the so-called *Atabegs* (regents). The Burid dynasty of Damascus (1103-1154) was founded by Tughtugui. The Zangid dynasty of Mesopotamia and Syria (1127-1250) by Imad al-Din Zangid, whose son, Nur al-Din, was famous as an opponent of the crusaders. The Zangids absorbed the Burids (1154). The Ortugid dynasty of Diyar-Bakr (Diarbelkr) was founded by Ortug bin Akrab (1101), whose sons, Sukman and Il-Ghazi, both won renown in the wars against the Latin princes of Palestine. The dynasty lasted until 1312. Sukman Qutbi was the first of the

Shahs of Armenia 100-207 The Achaemenid house of Azerbaijan (1136-1225) was founded by Ildigiz, whose son, Mohammed, was the actual ruler of the Seljuk Kingdom of Iraq. The Seljuks held Fars (1148-1287), the Hazaraspids Laristan (1148-1339), and Anushtigin, a Turkish slave of Balkatigin of Ghazna, was the grandfather of the first independent Shah of Khwarizm, Atsiz. At one time the rule of the Khwarizm Shah was almost co-terminous with the Seljuk Empire.

1095. The crusaders, having invaded the dominions of the Sultan of Rum, took Antioch, with frightful slaughter. They stormed Jerusalem (1099) and founded the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem. By 1109 Caesarea, Tripoli, Tyre, and Sidon were captured. Constant warfare between the crusaders and the Moslems (Fatimids, Burids, Zangids, Ortugids, and finally Saladin, the Sultan of Egypt). (*Cont. p. 325*)

C. THE CRUSADES

PRECURSORS OF THE CRUSADES:

(1) Penitentiary pilgrimages probably dating from the days of Helena, mother of Constantine, after the Arab conquest of Jerusalem (638) the Holy City was a joint shrine of Christian and Moslem, protectorate of Charlemagne over the Holy Places (recognized by Harun-al-Rashid, 807); abrogated by the mad Caliph Hakim (1010); (2) Charlemagne's war of Christian reconquest in Spain; (3) the Cluniac revival and its stress on pilgrimages led to a steady increase of pilgrimages (117 known in the 11th century) without serious opposition from the tolerant Moslems until the advent of the Seljuks; (4) Wars of Christian reconquest in the west began European reaction to Moslem pressure. Pisan reconquest of Sardinia (c. 1016) with papal support; alliance of Castile and Aragon in the reconquest of Spain (c. 1050). Norman reconquest of Sicily (1060-1090).

1087. Genoa and Pisa, by capture of Mahdiyah in Africa, gained command of the western Mediterranean from the Moslems. Appeal of the Greek emperor after Manzikert (1071) to Pope Gregory VII, preparation of an army (alliance with Roger Guiscard) by Gregory (1074) to aid the Greeks.

Transformation by Pope Urban II of military assistance to Constantinople into a new kind of holy war (a sort of ecclesiastical imperialism) under the auspices of the revived and regenerated papacy.

1095. Appeal from the Greek emperor at the Synod of Piacenza; Urban's

call at the Synod of Clermont (1095) Urban, a Cluniac and a Frenchman, speaking to Frenchmen, recited the glorious deeds of the French and tales of Moslem atrocities, made open allusions to the chances of profit and advancement, attacked feudal violence at home, and brought the audience to wild enthusiasms, he himself distributed crosses. Urban's propaganda journeys and the preaching of Peter the Hermit and others stirred the west, but had the greatest effect in France and Lorraine, the area most under Cluniac influence. The great rulers were all at odds with the papacy or busy at home, the rest of Europe indifferent, and the Crusades began as they continued, largely under French auspices.

1096-1099. THE FIRST CRUSADE. Five popular, aimless mass migrations (1096), employing whole villages and often accompanied by pillage and anti-Semitic outbreaks, of which two (perhaps 7000 under Peter the Hermit and perhaps 5000 under Walter the Penniless) reached Asia Minor and were annihilated. The Norman-French baronage flocked to the Cross and converged in three divisions on Constantinople: the Lorrainers under Godfrey of Bouillon and his brother Baldwin, via Hungary, the Provençals under Count Raymond of Toulouse and the papal legate, Adhemar of Pay, via Illyria, the Normans under Bohemund of Otranto (the most effective leader) via Durazzo by sea and land. Perhaps they were 30,000 in all.

The Greek emperor, Alexius Comnenus, expecting mercenaries and unprepared for crusaders, provided food and escort and punished the plunderers. He exacted an oath of fealty from the leaders (Raymond refused) in an effort to insure his title to any recovered "lost provinces" of the Greek Empire.

The Moslem opposition: the Seljuks had merely garrisoned Syria and were not popular with the native population. Moslem unity in Asia Minor ended with the death of Malik Shah (1092), and Syria was divided politically, racially, and theologically (Sunnite vs Shi'ite, the Fatimite capture of Jerusalem (1098) from the Shi'ites).

1097. Nicaea, the Seljuk capital in Asia Minor, taken by the combined Greek and crusading force, defeat of the Moslem field army at Dorylaeum, excursion of Baldwin and Tancred, and rivalry in Cilicia; Bohemund established himself in the Antioch area. Siege and capture (by treachery) of Antioch (1097-1098); counter-siege of the Christians in Antioch by the Emir of Mosul; election of Bohemund as leader. Baldwin's conquest of Edessa (1097), death of Adhemar of Pay (1098)

Christian divisions rivalry of Norman and Provençal (the *Holy Lance*).

1099. March to Jerusalem (Genoese convoy and food supply), siege, capture, and horrors of the sack. The death of the papal legate left the organization of the government of Jerusalem to feudal laymen. Godfrey of Bouillon, elected king, assumed the title of *Advocate of the Holy Sepulcher* (for pious reasons). The main body of the crusaders soon streamed back home. The Norman effort to dominate the government through their patriarch Dagobert led to his deposition by the anti-Norman party and Jerusalem became a feudal kingdom rather than theocracy under papal domination. The government (as revealed by the *Assises of Jerusalem*, the most complete feudal code extant) was narrowly feudal, the king a feudal suzerain, not a sovereign, the tenants-in-chief dominant. Besides the feudal organization there were burgher and ecclesiastical organizations, with their own courts.

Continued divisions among the Moslems and the weakness of the Greeks favored the progress of the Latin states. The Kingdom of Jerusalem, in close commercial alliance with the Italian towns (Genoa, Pisa, and later Venice), profited by the commerce through its ports and extended south to tap the Red Sea trade. The other states the County of Edessa (established by Baldwin), the Principality of Antioch (established by Bohemund), and the County of Tripoli (set up by Raymond of Toulouse), were fiefs of Jerusalem (divided into four great baronies and into lesser fiefs). The departure of the main body of the crusaders left the Franks without enough reinforcement to prevent their orientalization and decline. After the capture of Jerusalem (1187) the Kingdom of Jerusalem ceased to be an organized state.

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Bernard of Clairvaux, persuaded by Pope Eugenius III, somewhat against his will, preached (1145) the Second Crusade. Emperor Conrad III and King Louis VII of France took the Cross. To avoid conflicts the two monarchs went by separate routes; there never was coherent direction or unity of command. The Norman Roger of Sicily profited by the Second

Crusade to seize the Greek islands and to attack Athens, Thebes, and Corinth. Nothing of importance was achieved by the Second Crusade and the movement was discredited throughout Europe.

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cipitated by the fall of Jerusalem a completely lay and royal affair despite the efforts of the papacy to regain control. It was supported partly by the Saladin tithe, and was led by the three greatest monarchs of the day: (1) Frederick Barbarossa (a veteran of the Second Crusade) as emperor, the traditional and theoretical military leader of Christendom, headed a well-organized and disciplined German contingent starting from Regensburg (1189), which marched via Hungary, entered Asia Minor, and disintegrated after Frederick was drowned (1190), (2) King Richard I of England and (3) King Philip II of France, who went by sea. Already political rivals, they quarreled in winter quarters in Sicily (1190-1191), Richard turned aside in the spring and took Cyprus which he sold to Guy de Lusignan. The quarrels of Philip and Richard continued in the Holy Land, and Philip returned to France after the capture of Acre (1191). Richard's negotiations with Saladin (Richard proposed a marriage of his sister Joanna to Saladin's brother, who was to be invested with Jerusalem) resulted (1192) in a three-year truce allowing the Christians a coastal strip between Joppa and Acre and access to Jerusalem. Captivity of Richard (1192-1194) and heavy ransom to the Emperor Henry VI. The Third Crusade ended the golden age of the crusades.

1202-1204. THE FOURTH CRUSADE.

Emperor Henry VI, King of Sicily (by virtue of his marriage to the Norman Constance) and heir of the traditional Norman plan of creating an empire on the ruins of the Greek Empire, was determined to continue his father Frederick's crusade, and began to encroach on the Greek lands: homage of Cyprus and Lesser Armenia (1195), the marriage of Henry's brother Philip to Irene, daughter of the deposed

Impeo Isaac Angelus, established a Hohenstaufen claim to the Greek throne Henry died 1197.

Pope Innocent III determined to regain control of the crusading movement, and hoping to unite the Greek and Latin Churches, issued a call to the monarchs, it was ignored (Philip II and King John of England were at odds, Germany in chaos, the Spanish rulers busy with the Moors), and the brunt fell again on the French baronage. Egypt, the objective, could only be reached by water, negotiations with Venice (1201) terms, 85,000 marks and half the booty Meeting of Hagenau (1201) between Philip (brother of Henry VI), Boniface of Monterrat, and (P) Alexius, decision to divert the crusade to Constantinople (a return to the plans of Henry VI), Venice may have shared in the decision. As it was impossible to raise 85,000 marks, Venice agreed to fulfill her bargain if the Christian city of Zara were taken by the crusade Despite Innocent's furious opposition, Zara was taken and sacked (1202), Innocent excommunicated the crusade Constantinople was entered (1203), Isaac Angelus and his son Alexius IV were restored, Greek opinion was furious at the new exactions to pay the clamorous crusaders, and Alexius V soon succeeded Isaac The crusaders stormed and took Constantinople (1204), the first capture of Constantinople in history, and sacked it with unparalleled honors The Latin Empire of the East (*Romania*) replaced the Greek Empire at Constantinople from 1204 to 1261, the first emperor, Baldwin of Flanders, a Latin patriarch a Venetian (Morosini), replaced the Greek patriarch, and technically the schism was ended, actually the Greeks refused all union Venice acquired three-eighths of the city, Adrianople, Gallipoli, Navos, Andros, Suboea Crete, and the Ionian islands, Innocent III was horrified and helpless The government of the Latin Empire was completely feudal under the *Assizes of Romania* (copied from the *Assizes of Jerusalem*) The Greek emperors ruled at Nicaea (1204-1261) until Michael VIII surprised and took Constantinople, 1261 The fourth Crusade shocked Europe, discredited the papacy and the whole crusading movement, and facilitated the advance of the Turks

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1267 Charles of Anjou, aiming at the conquest of the temple be-

came heir (by treaty) to the Latin Empire. He planned to unite Sicily and Jerusalem, but was balked by the Sicilian Vespers (1282)

1269. James the Conqueror, of Aragon, under papal pressure, made a futile crusading expedition to Asia Minor

1270. THE EIGHTH CRUSADE, the second of King Louis IX and Edward of England (the last of the western crusaders who arrived (1271) and did nothing permanent) Attack on Tunis, possibly at the insistence of Charles of Anjou, death of Louis, the expedition continued by Charles, nothing accomplished

1274. Preaching of a crusade at Lyons by Pope Gregory X, every ruler took the Cross, Gregory's death ended the project Acre fell, 1291

Local and specific crusading expeditions were subsequently undertaken under various circumstances at different times, there was a revival of crusading zeal with the fall of Constantinople (1453) under papal urging, but the true crusades were over

The crusades gave rise to great orders of knighthood which combined chivalry and monasticism

THE KNIGHTS OF ST JOHN or the *Hospitaliers* (black mantle with a white cross), originally a Chilian order founded at Jerusalem by Amalfitan merchants (c. 1070) to care for the Hospital of St John, militarized (c. 1130) on the model of the Knights Templar; transferred to Cyprus (1291), to Rhodes (1310-1522) (the *Knights of Rhodes*) and then to Malta (*Knights of Malta*) Noble blood was a requisite to knighthood in the order

THE KNIGHTS OF THE TEMPLE (their house in Jerusalem stood near the Temple) or *Templars* (white mantle with a red cross) founded (c. 1120) by Hugh of Payens to guide and protect pilgrims, confirmed by the Synod of Troyes (1128) and Pope Honorius III Bernard of Clairvaux drew up their rule, a modification of the Cistercian, they took the threefold monastic vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, and their rule in general was that of the canons regular They consisted of knights, men-at-arms, and chaplains Admission to knighthood in the order was open only to those of noble blood Organization by commanderies under a grand master Transferred to Cyprus (1291), the order was dissolved by the Synod of Vienne (1312) (see p. 232)

The other great orders were associated with national or racial influences, and do not represent the older international aspects of

The Knights of the Hospital of St. Mary of the Teutons in Jerusalem (*Teutonic Knights*) (white mantle with a black cross) founded (c. 1190); headquarters at Acre. (For their history in Germany, see p. 214)

The great Spanish orders Calatrava (founded, 1164), Avis (Portuguese, founded 1166), St James of Compostella (founded 1175), Alcantara (founded, 1183)

Famous orders of chivalry of royal foundation The Order of the Garter (English), founded c. 1344. The Order of the Star (French) founded 1351, replaced by the Order of St. Michael (1469-1830) The Order of the Golden Fleece (Burgundian) founded, 1429, became Hapsburg 1477

d. LATIN AND GREEK STATES IN THE NEAR EAST, 1204-1261

Division of the Eastern Empire after the fall of Constantinople: A council, composed equally of crusaders and Venetians, decided to award the imperial crown to Count Baldwin of Flanders, while a Venetian (Pier Morosini) was made Patriarch of Constantinople. Boniface of Montferrat was made King of Thessalonica and the remaining parts of the empire were assigned to various feudal barons as vassals of the emperor In Anatolia the crusaders were never able to establish themselves excepting in a part of Bithynia near the Bosphorus In Europe they were constantly exposed to the attacks of the Bulgarians The Kingdom of Thessalonica at first extended over part of Thrace, Macedonia, and Thessaly, but to the westward the Greek, Michael Angelus Comnenus, set himself up as Despot of Epirus and soon began to expand his dominion eastward Attica and the Peloponnese were conquered by crusading barons in a short time, and these territories were organized on a feudal basis as the Lordship of Athens (Otto de la Roche, 1205-1225, Guy I, 1225-1263, John I, 1263-1280), and the Principality of Achaia (conquered by Guillaume de Champlitte and Geoffroy de Villehardouin in 1205) Achaia was in turn divided into twelve feudal baronies, a perfect example of the French feudal system Under the Villehardouin family (Geoffroy I, 1209-1218; Geoffroy II, 1218-1246; Guillaume, 1246-1278) it was well-governed and popular with the Greco-Slavic population, which was considerably treated.

The Venetians took as their share of the empire most of the islands and other important strategic or commercial posts They kept for themselves part of Constantinople, Gallipoli, Euboea, Crete the southwest tip of the P (Coron

and Modon), Durazzo, and other posts on the Epiran coast, as well as the islands of the Ionian and Aegean Seas. For the most part these possessions were granted as fiefs to the leading Venetian families (Tetrarches of Euboea, Duchy of the Archipelago, etc.).

1204-1205. **BALDWIN I**, Latin emperor

1204-1214 **MICHAEL ANGELUS COMNENUS**, Despot of Epirus

1204. Theodore Lascaris, with most of the Byzantine leaders, established himself in Bithynia, Theodore Maniakes set himself up at Philadelphia, Leo Gabalas took over Rhodes, Manuel Maurozomes established himself in the Meander Valley, Alexius and David Comnenus organized a state on the north coast of Anatolia with David at Sinope and Alexius at Trebizond, thus founding the **Empire of Trebizond**, which lasted until the Ottoman conquest of 1461.

1204. Theodore Lascaris made an alliance with the Sultan of Rum and with Maniakes of Philadelphia to resist the advance of the crusaders into Anatolia, but was defeated by the latter under Peter of Bracheuil.

1205. The Bulgars, under Kalojan, defeated Emperor Baldwin and Doge Dandolo in battle near Adrianople. Baldwin was captured and died in captivity. The Bulgars then overran much of Thrace and Macedonia, exterminating a large part of the Greek population.

1205-1216. **HENRY I**, Latin emperor. He was the brother of Baldwin, and the ablest of the Latin emperors.

1206-1222 **THEODORE I (Lascaris)**, proclaimed emperor at Nicaea and founder of the Nicaean Empire.

1207 Kalojan and the Bulgarians besieged Thessalonica, but in vain. Kalojan died suddenly, probably murdered.

1207. Theodore Lascaris, allied with the Seljuks of Rum, defeated David Comnenus and drove him back to Sinope. Theodore then concluded a truce with the Emperor Henry, in order to oppose the advance of Alexius of Trebizond, who was now allied with the Seljuks.

1209. Theodore repulsed a second attempt by Peter of Bracheuil and the crusaders to conquer Bithynia.

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1224 Theodore of Epirus defeated an army of the Latin emperor at Serres and then drove the invading Nicaean army away from Adrianople.

1228. On the death of Robert of Courtenay, it was proposed that a regency be established under the Bulgarian ruler, John Asen II (1218-1241), but this suggestion was frustrated by the Latin clergy.

came heir (by treaty) to the Latin Empire. He planned to unite Sicily and Jerusalem, but was balked by the Sicilian Vespers (1282).

1269. James the Conqueror, of Aragon, under papal pressure, made a futile crusading expedition to Asia Minor.

1270. THE EIGHTH CRUSADE, the second of King Louis IX and Edward of England (the last of the western crusaders who arrived (1271) and did nothing permanent). Attack on Tunis, possibly at the insistence of Charles of Anjou, death of Louis, the expedition continued by Charles, nothing accomplished.

1274. Preaching of a crusade at Lyons by Pope Gregory X, every ruler took the Cross. Gregory's death ended the project. Acre fell, 1291.

Local and specific crusading expeditions were subsequently undertaken under various circumstances at different times, there was a revival of crusading zeal with the fall of Constantinople (1453) under papal urging, but the true crusades were over.

The crusades gave rise to great orders of knighthood which combined chivalry and monasticism.

THE KNIGHTS OF ST. JOHN or the *Hospitallers* (black mantle with a white cross), originally a Chilian order founded at Jerusalem by Amalfitan merchants (c. 1070) to care for the Hospital of St. John, militarized (c. 1130) on the model of the Knights Templar, transferred to Cyprus (1291) to Rhodes (1310-1522) (the *Knights of Rhodes*) and then to Malta (*Knights of Malta*). Noble blood was a requisite to knighthood in the order.

THE KNIGHTS OF THE TEMPLE (their house in Jerusalem stood near the Temple) or *Templars* (white mantle with a red cross) founded (c. 1120) by Hugh of Payens to guide and protect pilgrims, confirmed by the Synod of Troyes (1128) and Pope Honorius III. Bernard of Clairvaux drew up their rule, a modification of the Cistercian, they took the threefold monastic vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, and their rule in general was that of the canons regular. They consisted of knights, men-at-arms, and chaplains. Admission to knighthood in the order was open only to those of noble blood. Organization by commanderies under a grand master. Transferred to Cyprus (1291), the order was dissolved by the Synod of Vienna (1312) (see p. 232).

The other great orders were associated with national or racial influences, and do not represent the older international aspects of

The Knights of the Hospital of St. Mary of the Teutons in Jerusalem (*Teutonic Knights*) (white mantle with a black cross) founded (c. 1190), headquarters at Acre (For their history in Germany, see p. 214.)

The great Spanish orders Calatrava (founded, 1164), Avis (Portuguese, founded 1166); St. James of Compostella (founded 1175); Alcántara (founded, 1183).

Famous orders of chivalry of royal foundation: The Order of the Garter (English), founded c. 1344. The Order of the Star (French) founded 1351, replaced by the Order of St. Michael (1469-1830). The Order of the Golden Fleece (Burgundian) founded, 1420, became Hapsburg, 1477.

d. LATIN AND GREEK STATES IN THE NEAR EAST, 1204-1261

Division of the Eastern Empire after the fall of Constantinople. A council, composed equally of crusaders and Venetians, decided to award the imperial crown to Count Baldwin of Flanders, while a Venetian (Pier Morosini) was made Patriarch of Constantinople. Boniface of Montferrat was made King of Thessalonica and the remaining parts of the empire were assigned to various feudal barons as vassals of the emperor. In Anatolia the crusaders were never able to establish themselves excepting in a part of Bithynia near the Bosphorus. In Europe they were constantly exposed to the attacks of the Bulgarians. The Kingdom of Thessalonica at first extended over part of Thrace, Macedonia, and Thessaly, but to the westward the Greek, Michael Angelus Comnenus, set himself up as Despot of Epirus and soon began to expand his dominion eastward. Attica and the Peloponnese were conquered by crusading barons in a short time, and these territories were organized on a feudal basis as the *Lordship of Athens* (Otto de la Roche, 1205-1225, Guy I, 1225-1263; John I, 1263-1280), and the *Principality of Achaia* (conquered by Guillaume de Champlitte and Geoffroy de Villehardouin in 1205). Achaia was in turn divided into twelve feudal baronies, a perfect example of the French feudal system. Under the Villehardouin family (Geoffroy I, 1209-1218, Geoffroy II, 1218-1240, Guillaume, 1246-1278) it was well-governed and popular with the Greco-Slavic population, which was considerably treated.

The Venetians took as their share of the empire most of the islands and other important strategic or commercial posts. They kept for themselves part of Constantinople. Gallipoli, Euboea, Crete, the south tip of the P. (Coron

and Modon). Durazzo, and other posts on the Epiran coast, as well as the islands of the Ionian and Aegean Seas. For the most part these possessions were granted as fiefs to the leading Venetian families (Triarchies of Euboea, Duchy of the Archipelago, etc.).

1204-1205. **BALDWIN I**, Latin emperor
1204-1214. **MICHAEL ANGELUS COMNENUS**, Despot of Epirus.

1204. Theodore Lascaris, with most of the Byzantine leaders, established himself in Bithynia, Theodore Maniaphas set himself up at Philadelphia, Leo Gabalas took over Rhodes, Manuel Maurozomes established himself in the Meander Valley, Alexius and David Comnenus organized a state on the north coast of Anatolia, with David at Sinope and Alexius at Trebizond, thus founding the **Empire of Trebizond**, which lasted until the Ottoman conquest of 1461.

1204. Theodore Lascaris made an alliance with the Sultan of Rum and with Maniaphas of Philadelphia to resist the advance of the crusaders into Anatolia, but was defeated by the latter under Peter of Bracheuil.

1205. The Bulgars, under Kalojan, defeated Emperor Baldwin and Doge Dandolo in battle near Adrianople. Baldwin was captured and died in captivity. The Bulgars then overran much of Thrace and Macedonia, exterminating a large part of the Greek population.

1205-1216. **HENRY I**, Latin emperor. He was the brother of Baldwin, and the ablest of the Latin emperors.

1206-1222. **THEODORE I (Lascaris)**, proclaimed emperor at Nicaea and founder of the Nicaean Empire.

1207. Kalojan and the Bulgarians besieged Thessalonica, but in vain. Kalojan died suddenly, probably murdered.

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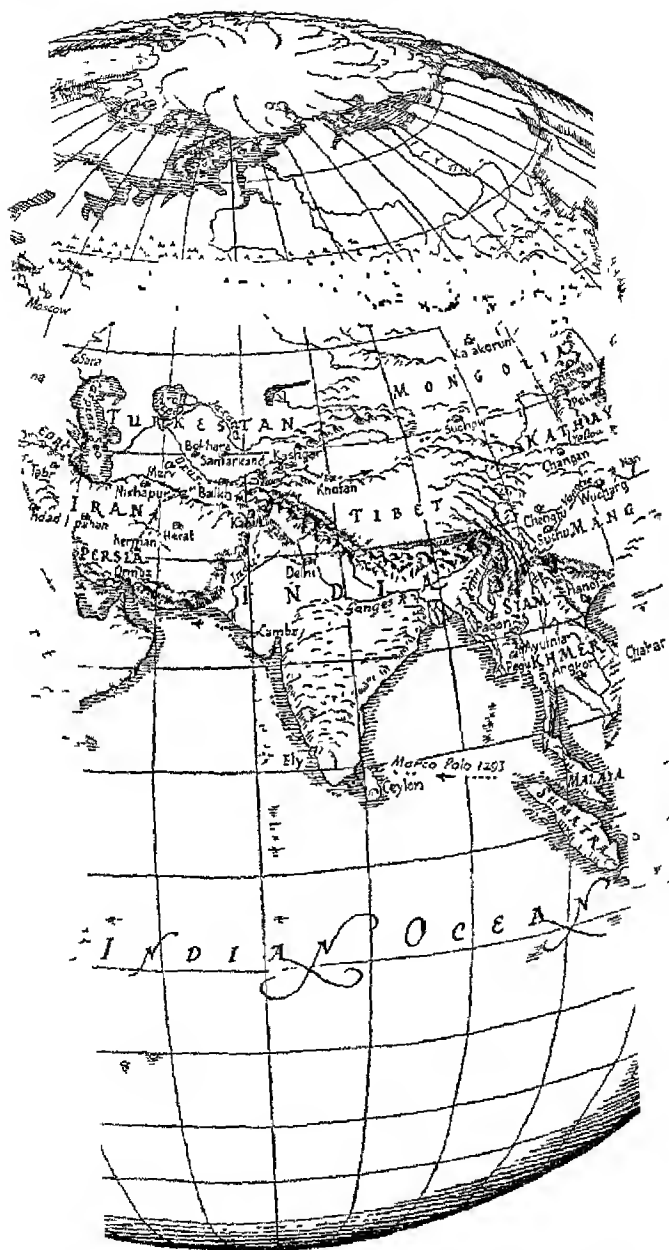
- 1228-1261. BALDWIN II**, Latin emperor. He was the eleven-year-old son of Peter of Courtenay. The reign was a helpless one, during which the emperor was reduced to the point of peddling the Constantinople relics through Europe.
- 1229-1237. Regency of John of Brienne**, former King of Jerusalem, for the boy-emperor John became co-emperor in 1231.
- 1230. Theodore of Epirus** was defeated and captured by John Asen in the battle of Klokotnica. The Bulgarian ruler thereupon appropriated most of the eastern sections of the Empire of the West. Thessalonica and Thessaly passed to
- 1230-1236. MANUEL**, the brother of Theodore.
- 1235. An expedition** sent by John Vatatzes against the Venetians in Crete failed to achieve anything.
- 1236. An attack** of the Nicaean Greeks, allied with John Asen of Bulgaria, on Constantinople. The city was saved by the Venetians and by a force sent by the Duke of Achaia.
- 1236-1244. JOHN**, the son of Theodore Dukas of Epirus, became Despot of Thessaly and Emperor of the West.
- 1236-1271. MICHAEL II**, Despot of Epirus.
- 1242. John Vatatzes**, in company with Theodore, who had been liberated by the Bulgarians, set out with an army and besieged Thessalonica. He failed to take the city, owing to his lack of seapower, but John, the Despot of Thessaly, was obliged to give up the title Emperor of the West and to recognize the suzerainty of the Nicaean emperor.
- 1244. The Mongol invasion** of Anatolia, after the defeat of the Seljuks in the battle of Erzingan. The Mongols reached Ancyra (Ankara). John Vatatzes established friendly relations with them and succeeded to much of the Seljuk territory in central Anatolia.
- 1246. Second Expedition** of John Vatatzes to the Balkans. He conquered northern Macedonia and finally took Thessalonica, deposing Demetrius Angelus, despot since 1244.
- 1254. Michael II**, of Epirus, recognized Nicaean suzerainty, after a defeat by the forces of John Vatatzes.
- 1254-1258. THEODORE II** (*Lascaris*), Greek emperor at Nicaea.
- 1255. Theodore** defeated the Bulgarian armies of Michael Asen in northern Maced

- 1257. Revolt** of Michael II of Epirus, who managed to defeat the Nicaean forces sent against him.
- 1258-1261. JOHN IV** (*Lascaris*), emperor. He was a mere child and his accession led to a military uprising, led by Michael Palaeologus, who became regent.
- 1259-1282. MICHAEL VIII** (*Palaeologus*), who was first co-emperor with the boy John, whom in 1261 he had imprisoned and blinded. Michael was an able and energetic general, whose great objective was to re-establish the Greek power at Constantinople.
- 1259. Michael II** of Epirus, allied with the King of Sicily and with the Prince of Achaia, attacked Thessalonica, but was defeated and driven back by the Nicaeans (battle of Pelagonia).
- 1261. RECONQUEST OF CONSTANTINOPLE.** Michael made an alliance with the Bulgarians and concluded the Treaty of Nymphaion with Genoa, promising the Genoese all the privileges hitherto enjoyed by the Venetians. On July 25 a Greek army under Alexius Strategopoulos, taking advantage of the absence of the Venetian fleet, crossed the Bosphorus and retook Constantinople without much difficulty. Baldwin II fled (d 1273). End of the Latin Empire (Cont p 320)

e. THE MONGOLS

- Under the last caliphs, the caliphate had regained its temporal power in Iraq, Mesopotamia, and Persia and its spiritual authority was greater than at any time since the death of Wathiq (847), but the caliphate was soon threatened by the Mongols, who, in the late 12th century, had advanced from Mongolia.
- 1206. The Mongol chief, Temujin** (1162-1227), was proclaimed supreme ruler, *Jenghis Khan* (Very Mighty King) of all the Mongols. Under his leadership the Mongol armies swept over northern China and over Azerbaijan, Georgia, and northern Persia. Transoxiana was invaded and Bokhara taken (1219); Samarcand captured (1220) and Khorasan devastated. Destruction of Merv and Nishapur. Capture of Herat.
- 1223. Battle** of the Kalka River, in southern Russia. The Mongols defeated a strong force of Russians and Cumans, but after their victory returned to Asia.
- 1237-1240. Mongol armies** under Batu (actually commanded by Subutai) overran and conquered southern and cen-

ol Empire



tral Russia and then invaded Poland and Hungary

1241. The Mongols defeated the Poles and Germans in the battle of Liegnitz (Wahlstatt) in Silesia, while another army defeated the Hungarians. But because of political complications arising from the death of the Great Khan, Batu withdrew from western Europe, subjugating, on the way back, Bulgaria, Wallachia, and Moldavia. Subsequently he settled on the lower Volga, where a Mongol (Tatar) state was organized under the name of Golden Horde, with Sarai as the capital. The Golden Horde, like other Mongol khanates, recognized the supreme authority of the Great Khan, whose capital was first at Kara-Korum in Mongolia, then at Khanbalyk (present-day Peiping) in China. But after the death of Kublai Khan (1294) the unity of the empire was purely nominal.

1245-1253 Continued ravages of the Mongols in Mesopotamia, Azerbaijan, Armenia, and Georgia.

1256-1349. THE IL-KHANS OF PERSIA. Hulagu, the grandson of Jenghiz Khan, was sent by his brother, Mangu, to crush the Assassins and extirpate the caliphate.

1256. Suppression and extinction of the Assassins.

1258. CAPTURE AND SACK OF BAGHDAD. Hulagu executed the caliph, Musta'sim. He then invaded Syria and took Aleppo.

1260. Great victory of the Mamluks of Egypt, under Baybars, at Ain Jalut. This victory checked the Mongol advance and saved Egypt, the last refuge of Moslem culture. Baybars revived the caliphate by inviting to Cairo Ahmad Abul-Qasim, a scion of the Abbasid house, who was acknowledged as caliph under the title of *Mustansir b' Allah*.

1344-1349 Reign of Nushirwan, last of the Il-Khans of Persia. The dynasty was succeeded by a number of lesser families.

f. MOSLEM EGYPT

868-905. Dynasty of the Tulunids

936-969. Dynasty of the Ikhshidids. Both these dynasties also ruled Syria.

968-1171 THE FATIMID DYNASTY, under which Egypt became the most brilliant center of Moslem culture. The Fatimids claimed to be descendants of the Caliph Ali, and of Fatima, the daughter of the Prophet. They rose to power as a result of Shi'ite (Ismailian) propaganda, begun about 894 and spread from Y. Abu an

Ismailian missionary, had won over the powerful Kitama tribe and had overthrown the Aghlabids (909). Obaydullah, son of the Ismailian hidden Imam, then appeared and was proclaimed caliph and mahdi in Qairowan (910). In 922 he reduced the Idrisids, but an attempt to conquer Egypt failed. His son, Al-Qa'im, who succeeded him in 934, was defeated again and again and was besieged in his capital by the Kharigite, Abu Yazid Makhlad. Al-Qa'im's son, Al-Mansur, finally defeated Abu Yazid (947), and brought the whole of North Africa, Sicily, and Calabria under Fatimid rule, though he lost Morocco to the Omayyads of Spain. He was succeeded by his son, Al-Mu'iz, in 952. The latter recovered Morocco and drove the last Byzantine forces out of Sicily (966).

968. Al-Mu'iz took Egypt and transferred the seat of the Fatimid government to Cairo (founded 969).

975-996 Al-Aziz, son of Al-Mu'iz, sultan. He conquered Syria and part of Mesopotamia, and ruled from the Euphrates to the Atlantic.

996-1020. Al-Hakim, son of Al-Aziz, sultan. He was known as the *Mad Caliph*, having affirmed his own divinity. He tried to make Shi'ism the orthodox religion of Egypt. The cult of Hakim as an emanation of deity still survives among the Druses of Syria.

1020-1035. Reign of Al-Zahir, marking the beginning of the decline of the Fatimid power. Most of Syria was lost.

1035-1094. Reign of Al-Mustansir. The holy cities of Mecca and Medina disclaimed their allegiance (1047) and North Africa threw off the Fatimid yoke. On Al-Mustansir's death civil war broke out among his sons, Nizar and Ahmad. Nizar was defeated and killed, and Ahmad reigned as

1094-1101. Al-Musta'li. He lost Jerusalem to the crusaders (1099). The Fatimid power continued to decline.

1167. Shirkuh, general of the Zangid Nur al-Din of Damascus, entered Egypt to assist the last Fatimid Caliph Al-Acid. Shirkuh was appointed vizier, in which office he was succeeded by his nephew, Salah al-Din (*Saladin*), who founded the

1169-1250. Ayyubid dynasty. Saladin ruled at first as viceroy of Nur al-Din, but on the latter's death (1173) asserted his independence and consolidated his power over Egypt, part of Nubia, H. az, and Y.

1172. Saladin drove the Normans out of Tripoli.
1174. Invasion of Syria and conquest of Damascus. Aleppo taken (1183).
- 1185-1186. Saladin seized Mosul and reduced Mesopotamia.
1187. Battle of Hattin. Saladin destroyed the crusading Kingdom of Jerusalem.
- 1190-1193. Saladin defended his conquests against the Third Crusade.

g. MOSLEM DYNASTIES OF NORTH AFRICA

- 788-985. The Ahd dynasty of the Idrisids in Morocco, founded by Idris ibn Abdullah, a great-grandson of the Caliph Ali's son Hasan. This dynasty was overthrown by the Miknasa Berbers.
- 801-909. The Aghlabid dynasty in Tunis, founded by Ibrahim ibn Aghlab, the Abbasid governor of Africa. This dynasty conquered Sicily (827-878), took Malta and Sardinia and invaded southern

Italy. The dynasty was ultimately destroyed by the Fatimids.

1056-1147. The Almoravids, a Berber dynasty founded by Abdullah ibn Tashfin, conquered Morocco and part of Algeria and intervened actively in the affairs of Spain.

1130-1269. THE ALMOHADES, another Berber dynasty founded by the prophet, Mohammed ibn Tumart. His successor, Abdul-Mu'min, annihilated the Almoravid armies (1144). Morocco was conquered (1146) and Spain invaded. Algeria was subjugated in 1152, and the Normans driven out of Tunis (1158). Tripoli too was annexed. But in 1235 the Almohades were defeated and gradually ejected from Spain.

1228-1534. The Hafsid dynasty, which succeeded the Almohades in Tunis.

1235-1339. The Zayanids, successors of the Almohades in Algeria. They were ultimately absorbed by the

1296-1470. Marinids of Morocco, a dynasty founded in 1195 which took the Moroccan capital from the Almohades in 1296.

C. THE LATER MIDDLE AGES

1. WESTERN EUROPE

a. THE BRITISH ISLES

(1) *England, 1307-1485*

1307-1327. EDWARD II. Married to Isabella, daughter of Philip IV of France. Ignorant of his task and bored with the business of kingship, Edward was dominated by his favorite, Piers Gaveston, a Gascon. The Scottish war was continued in desultory fashion. The baronage, angered by Gaveston, followed the leadership of Edward's nephew, Thomas, Duke of Lancaster, an ambitious, unimpetuous person. They forced Edward to accept a committee of reform, the twenty-one Lords Ordainers (1310) whose reform ordinances, suggestive of the Provisions of Oxford, were confirmed by Parliament (1311). The ordinances required a baronial consent to royal appointments, to a declaration of war and to the departure of the king from the realm, this consent to be given through Parliament. Gaveston was captured and slain (1312).

1313-1314. The Scottish War. By 1313 only the castle of Stirling remained in the hands of the English. Edward set out (1314) to relieve the castle; Lancaster and the baronial party refused to support the expedition. At Bannockburn (1314) Edward was overwhelmingly defeated, and Scottish independence won.

In Gascony the French kings began a policy of egging Edward's vassals on to resistance, a process which culminated in the French conquest of Gascony and its retention by the French with the consent (1327) of the regents who ruled after Edward's abdication.

1314-1322. Supremacy of Lancaster. Lancaster offered no opposition to Scottish raids; private wars broke out in England; Edward was under a new favorite, Hugh le Despenser. Parliament exiled Despenser (1321). Edward defeated Lancaster at Boroughbridge (1322) and beheaded him. The Parliament of York repealed the Ordinances.

1322-1326. Rule of the Despensers, father and son. Scottish truce (1323), decline of the popularity of the Despensers, alienation of Queen Isabella. Isabella went

to France (1325), arranged the marriage of her son, the future Edward III, to Philippa of Hainault, and returned (1326) with Mortimer and foreign troops. Supported by the barons, Isabella gained London, the Despensers were hanged and the Parliament of Westminster (1327), dominated by Isabella and by Edward's enemies, forced an abdication that was tantamount to deposition. Edward was brutally murdered in prison eight months later.

Baronial reform was cynical and selfish in aim, but made no effort to destroy the monarchy. Burgesses and knights sat in the parliaments of 1311, 1322, and 1327, and retained a share in the grant of taxes.

1327-1377. EDWARD III (aged fifteen at his accession). Council of regency and rule (1327-1330) under Mortimer, Isabella's paramour, Bruce's invasion of England forced the acknowledgment of Scottish independence (1328). Edward led the baronial opposition to Mortimer (hanged, 1330) and opened his personal rule (1330).

1337. OUTBREAK OF THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR. Edward did homage (1329) for his French lands and renewed it (1331). French support of Scottish aggression continued and Edward, profiting by civil war in Scotland, supported Baliol, after a series of expeditions he avenged Bannockburn at Halidon Hill (1333). French intrigues to alienate Aquitaine continued, Edward sought allies in the emperor, the German princes, and his wife's relatives in Hainault and Holland, but could not win the Count of Flanders, the vassal of Philip VI. The economic interdependence, due to the wool trade, of England and the Flemish cities, made an English alliance with them inevitable. Philip continued his advance into the English lands south of the Loire (1337) and open hostilities broke out (1338). Edward ravaged northern and eastern France without a decisive battle. Urged on by the Flemings, Edward proclaimed himself King of France (in right of his mother Isabella), and enabled the Flanders towns under Jan van Artevelde to support him without violating their oaths.

1340. The naval victory of Sluys transferred the mastery of the Channel from France to England (until 1372). Intermittent truces (1340-1345) were followed by Edward's invasion of France, and

1346, Aug. 26. Great VICTORY AT CRÉCY where English longbowmen, supported by dismounted horsemen, routed the undisciplined chivalry and mercenary crossbowmen of France. This tactical innovation, the result of English experiences in Wales and Scotland, began the joint participation of the yeomanry and the aristocracy in war, and gave the English a unique military power and new social orientation. Artillery may have been used in Crécy.

1346 The invasion of Philip's Scottish allies was halted at Neville's Cross, and the King of Scotland captured.

1347. Calais was taken after a long siege in which artillery was used (Philip's intervention in behalf of the burghers of Calais). Calais remained an English military and commercial outpost in France until 1558.

1347-1355. A series of truces with France was ended by the expedition of Edward's son, Edward, the Black Prince, to Bordeaux, followed by ruthless plundering raids from there as a base, which enriched the English and alienated the populace.

1356, Sept. 19. BATTLE OF POITIERS. The Black Prince, using the tactics of Crécy, defeated King John, capturing him, his son, and the King of Bohemia, as well as the flower of French chivalry.

1359-1360 Edward's last expedition to France penetrated to the walls of Paris; the south had been so devastated that the English could hardly find food.

1360. PEACE OF BRETAGNY, ending the first period of the war (1) France, utterly exhausted and in chaos, surrendered the full sovereignty of Aquitaine, Calais, Ponthieu, and (2) fixed John's ransom, (3) Edward waived his claims to the crown of France.

THE BLACK PRINCE IN THE SOUTH

The Black Prince, ruling as Duke of Aquitaine, supported Pedro the Cruel of Castile against Henry of Trastámara (allied with Charles V and aided by Du Guesclin). Having defeated Du Guesclin and Henry (Navarrete, 1367), the Black Prince, disgusted at Pedro's character, his army dis-

sipated by illness, and seriously ill himself withdrew. Taxation in Aquitaine to pay for the expedition led the southern baronage to appeal to Charles V, who summoned the Black Prince to answer to him as his feudal lord (alleging a technical defect in the Peace of Brittany). The prince defied Charles, and Parliament advised Edward to resume his claims to the French crown. Du Guesclin avoided open battle, pursuing a warfare of attrition which wore out the Black Prince and alienated the Aquitanians from the English. After the hideous sack of Limoges (1370) the Black Prince returned to England (1371) and was replaced (1372-1374) by his brother, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, an incompetent soldier who lost town after town until only Calais, Cherbourg, Brest, Bayonne, and Bordeaux remained in English hands (1375).

Edward's personal rule and domestic developments in England. Edward, a majestic, affable man, opened his reign with generous concessions to the baronage, and a courteous welcome to the complaints of the middle class. He grew steadily in popularity. He was lord of war and the war was popular, the nation backed him.

Progress of Parliament. The necessities of war finance played into the hands of Parliament, and (after 1325) the knights and burgesses began to establish a privileged position for their common petitions. Without immediate redress when the king broke promises of reform, they were able to apply financial pressure in crises. The king could still legislate outside Parliament by ordinances in council, but Parliament was gaining the initiative: non-feudal levies and changes in levies require parliamentary sanction (1340); a money grant made conditional on redress, and auditors of expenditure appointed (1340-1341), all ministers of the king declared (1341) to be subject to parliamentary approval (soon repealed), demand that a grant be spent as directed (1344); a specific grant voted for defense against the Scots (1348), appointment of parliamentary treasurers and collectors (1377). Parliament continued to sit as a single body, but deliberated in sections: the magnates and prelates sitting in the parliament chamber with the King's Council (thus forming the Great Council), the knights and burgesses met separately until 1339-1340, when they began joint sessions (i.e. emergence of the Commons) and designated (before 1377) a representative, the speaker, to voice their views in debate. Royal officials ceased to attend the Council-in-Parliament, leaving the council to the prelates and magnates (now sitting virtually by hereditary right). The

outline of the House of Lords began to appear.

Development of justices of the peace The conservators of the peace established under Henry III to keep the peace had no judicial powers, the Statute of 1327 allowed them to receive indictments for trial before the itinerant judges. In 1332 their jurisdiction was made to include felonies and trespass. Established as police judges in each county (1360) they were also charged with price and labor regulation. By 1485 they had absorbed most of the functions of the sheriffs. Chosen from the local gentry, under royal commission, they constituted an amateur body of administrators who carried on local government in England until well into the 19th century.

1348-1349 The ravages of the Black

Death may have reduced the population one-half, coupled with tremendous war prosperity, this dislocated the wage and price structure, producing a major economic and social crisis. Wages and prices were regulated by a royal ordinance (1349) followed by the Statute of Laborers (1351) fixing wages and prices, and attempting to compel able-bodied unemployed to accept work when offered. The labor shortage accelerated the transition (already begun) from servile to free tenures and fluid labor, the statute in practice destroyed English social unity without markedly arresting servile emancipation or diminishing the crisis.

War prosperity affected everybody and led to a general surge of luxury (e.g. the new and generous proportions of contemporary Perpendicular Gothic). Landowners, confronted with a labor shortage, began to enclose for sheep-raising, and the accumulation of capital and landholdings founded great fortunes, which soon altered the political and social position of the baronage. The yeomanry, exhilarated by their joint military achievement with the aristocracy, and their share of war plunder, lost their traditional passivity, and a new ferment began among the lower sections of society.

Growth of national and anti-clerical (antipapal) feeling. Hostility to the Francophil papacy at Avignon. Statute of Provisors (1351), an effort to stem the influx of alien clergy under papal provisions (renewed several times), Statute of Praemunire (1353), forbidding appeals to courts (i.e. Avignon) outside England (renewed several times); rejection (1366) by Parliament of the papal request that John's tribute (intermitted by Edward, 1333) be renewed, and declaration that no king could make England a papal fief without Parliament's consent. Parliament declared bish-

ops unfit for state offices (1371). Progress of the vernacular. English became, by statute (1362), the language of pleading and judgment in the courts (law French retained in documents). English began to be taught in the schools (1375). Parliament was opened (1399) with a speech in English.

c. 1362. Growth of social tension. Langland's *Piers Plowman*, a vernacular indictment of governmental and ecclesiastical corruption, and an appeal (unique in Europe) in behalf of the poor peasant, appeared. Langland, a poor country parson, typical of the section of the Church directly in contact with public opinion, was the voice of the old-fashioned godly England bewildered and angered by a new epoch. Preaching of scriptural egalitarianism by various itinerant preachers (e.g. John Ball), growing bitterness against landlords and lawyers.

c. 1376. John Wiclif, an Oxford don and chaplain of Edward, already employed (1374) by the government in negotiations with the papacy over provisions, published his *Civil Dominion*, asserting in curious feudal terms that, as Christians hold all things of God under a contract to be virtuous, sin violates this contract and destroys title to goods and offices. Wiclif made it plain that his doctrine was a philosophical and theological theory, not a political concept, but extremists ignored this point. A remarkable precursor of the Reformation, Wiclif advocated a propertyless Church, emphasizing the purely spiritual function, attacked the Caesarian clergy, and insisted on the direct access of the individual to God (e.g. abolition of auricular confession, reduction of the importance of the sacraments, notably penance) and the right of individual judgment. He also was responsible (with Purvey and Nicholas of Hereford) for the first complete, vernacular English Bible. He wrote pamphlets, both in Latin and English, and carried on a wide agitation through his poor priests for his doctrines (Lollardy) until it was said every fourth man was a Lollard.

1369-1377. Edward, in his dotage, was under the domination of Alice Perrers, the Black Prince (after his return, 1371) was ill and lethargic; government in church and state was sunk in the depths of corruption, society in an orgy of luxury.

1374. John of Gaunt, returning from France, struck a bargain with Alice Perrers, became the leader of the state, set out to use the strong anti-clerical feeling and social unrest for his own ends, and probably aimed at the succession.

1376 The Black Prince, valenced from his lethargy, led the Good Parliament in a series of reforms: the Commons refused supply until an audit of accounts, two notorious aristocratic war profiteers (Lyons and Latimer) were impeached before the King's Council (i.e. the future Lords), the first impeachment of officials by Parliament in English history.

1377. After the death of the Black Prince (1376) John of Gaunt's packed Parliament undid the reforms and passed a general poll tax (4d.).

1377. Gaunt, aiming at the confiscation of clerical estates, supported Wiclif, but the bishops, unable to touch Gaunt, had Wiclif called to account. A violent scene between Gaunt and Bishop Courtenay ended with public opinion on the bishop's side and Gaunt in flight. Attempts to discipline Wiclif failed because of public opinion, but his denial of transubstantiation (1380) alienated Gaunt and his aristocratic supporters.

ART AND LITERATURE.

Perpendicular Gothic: Gloucester, transepts and choir (1331-1335), cloisters (1351-1412). Minor arts: *Louise's Psalter* (opening of the 14th century), illuminations. English influence on craftsmen of the Rhineland, Paris, Lorraine.

Popular songs: Anti-French songs in celebration of victories at Halidon Hill, Sluys, the capture of Calais, etc., c. 1377 first mention of Robin Hood.

Historical writing: Higden's *Polychronicon* (before 1363), a brilliant universal history in Latin, Walsingham or St. Albans' (end of the 14th century) *Chronicle*, in Latin, rivaling Froissart in brilliance of description. English translation (1377) of the fictional account of the *Travels of Sir John Mandeville* by Jean de Bourgogne.

The Pearl, a mystical poem of lament for a dead daughter, influenced by the *Roman de la Rose*, and suggestive of Dante's mystical visions.

Geoffrey Chaucer (c. 1340-1400), son of a London burgher, a layman, attached to the circle of John of Gaunt, a diplomat, active at court, later member of Parliament, combined observation with learning. Translator of Boethius' *Consolatio*, etc. Representative of the new cosmopolitanism of English society, he was under Italian and French influences; probably knew Petrarch. Creator of English versification; recaster of the English vocabulary by adding continental grace to the ruder Anglo-Saxon word-treasury. The influence of Wiclif, Oxford, Cambridge, the court, and above all, Chaucer, fixed Midland English as the language of the English people. The

Canterbury Tales are a witty, sympathetic, sophisticated, realistic picture of contemporary society (omitting the aristocracy). John Gower (d. 1408), last of the Anglo-Norman poets, wrote in both Latin and French, and later (perhaps due to Chaucer) in English. *Confessio Amantis*; *Vox Clamantis* (expressing the alarm of a landowner at the Peasants' Revolt).

Foundation of Winchester School (St Mary's College) by William of Wykeham (1393).

1377-1399. RICHARD II (son of the Black Prince, aged ten at his accession).

1377-1389. Minority. Marriage to Anne of Bohemia (1382); rule by the council under the domination of John of Gaunt; activity of Parliament; insistence by the Commons on the nomination of twelve new councillors. Renewal of war in France (1383), loss of the Flanders trade, complaints at the cost by Parliament. Poll taxes (1370 and 1380), sporadic violence, growing tension in the lower orders of society.

1381. PEASANTS' REVOLT. Efforts by the landlords to revert to the old servile tenures culminated in a peasant rising, the burning of manors, destruction of records or tenures, game parks, etc., assassination of landlords and lawyers, and a march (100,000 men) from the south and east of England on London led by Jack Straw, Wat Tyler, and others (release of John Ball from prison). London admitted the marchers, lawyers and officials were murdered, their houses sacked, the Savoy (John of Gaunt's palace) burned. Significant demands: commutation of servile dues, disendowment of the Church, abolition of game laws. The Tower was seized, Archbishop Sudbury (mover, as chancellor, of the poll taxes) was murdered. Richard met the rebels (Mile End), rapidly issued charters of manumission, and started most of them home. After the murder of Wat Tyler, Richard cleverly took command of the remnant (possibly 30,000), deluded them with false promises, and dispersed them. Cruel reaction ensued: Richard and Parliament annulled the charters, terrible repression followed, and a deliberate effort was made to restore villeinage. This proved impossible and serfdom continued to disappear.

1381. Passage of the first Navigation Act, followed by clear signs of growing national monopoly of commerce.

1382. Wiclif, who had alienated his upper-class supporters by a denial of transubstantiation, was discredited by the Peasants' Revolt, and condemned by the Church, and withdrew to Lutterworth.

(1382-384) when he continued to foster Lollardy until he died (1384). His body, by order of the Council of Constance, was dug up and burned (1428).

1382. Archbishop Courtenay purged Oxford of Lollardy, thus separating the movement from the cultured classes and destroying academic freedom, with serious results alike for reform and education in England. Parliament refused to allow persecution of the Lollards. The position of the English Church was not wholly due to its own corruption nor to the paralysis of the Avignonese Captivity, but was partly a result of the fact that secular learning, secular society, and the secular state had overtaken the position of the Church.

1385. Futile expedition of Richard to Scotland; threatened French invasion (1386); general demands for reform in government. Parliament blocked Richard's effort (1385) to set up a personal government, and appointed a commission of reform. The Lords Appellant (led by Richard's uncle, the Duke of Gloucester) secured the impeachment and condemnation (1388) of five of Richard's party (in the *Wonderful*, or *Merciless Parliament*).

1389-1397. Richard's personal and constitutional rule. Truce with France (1389), peace negotiations, marriage to Isabella, infant daughter of Charles VI (1396). Richard was on good terms with Parliament, England prosperous and quiet. Livery and maintenance forbidden by statute (1390); re-enactment of the Statute of Provisions (1390), Mortmain (1391), Praemunire (1393).

1397-1399. Richard's attempt at absolutism. Richard, furious at a parliamentary demand for financial accounting, had the mover (Haxey) condemned for treason (not executed). In the next Parliament (Commons, packed for Richard, Lords friendly) three of the Lords Appellant were convicted and executed for treason. Richard was voted an income for life (1398) and the powers of Parliament delegated to a committee friendly to Richard. Heavy taxation, ruthless executions, and a reign of terror opened the way for the conspiracy of Henry of Bolingbroke (exiled son of John of Gaunt).

1399. Bolingbroke landed while Richard was in Ireland, got him into his power on his return, and forced him to abdicate. Richard was thrown into the Tower and later died (murdered?) in prison (1400). Parliament accepted the abdication and, returning to the ancient custom of election, made Henry king. Henry's title by her-

edity was faulty, his claim was based on usurpation, legalized by Parliament, and backed by public opinion.

1399-1461. THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

1399-1413. HENRY IV. The reign, in view of the nature of Henry's title to the throne, was inevitably a parliamentary one. Henry, an epileptic, was not a great king but a national monarch was now a necessity to England. To retain the support of the Church, Henry opposed the demand (1404) of the Commons (perhaps a reflection of Lollardy) that church property be confiscated, and applied to poor relief. The request was renewed (1410). The statute, *de Heretico Comburendo* (1401), increased the power of the Church over heresy (primarily, of course, against Lollardy) and was the first law of its kind in England.

1400-1406. Rebellions and invasions: (1) Revolt in behalf of Richard (1400); (2) Scottish invasion (1402) stopped by the Percies, the leading barons of Northumberland, at Homildon Hill, (3) Owen Glendower's revolt in Wales (1402-1409) joined by (4) the revolt of the Percies (1403-1404), (5) French landing in Wales (1405), (6) Archbishop (of York) Scrope's rebellion (1405); (7) attack by the Duke of Orleans in Guenne (1406).

1413-1422. HENRY V, a careful king, whose military achievements brought England to the first rank in Europe. Bent on the revival of the Church, he led a strong attack on Lollardy. Sir John Oldcastle (Lord Cobham), the leading Lollard, was excommunicated by Archbishop Arundel, but escaped, a Lollard plot against the king's life was discovered; Henry attacked (1414) and captured a Lollard group, most of whom were hanged, anti-Lollard legislation allowing seizure of their books, Oldcastle, the last influential Lollard, executed (1417). Henceforth Lollardy was a lower-class movement driven underground until the Reformation.

1415. Henry, in alliance with Burgundy, asserted his claims (such as they were) to the throne of France. Relying on the anarchy in France and hoping by military successes to unite the English behind the house of Lancaster, he advanced into France.

1415, Oct. 25. BATTLE OF AGINCOURT.

Henry's great victory over vastly superior forces opened the way.

1417-1419. The reconquest of Normandy and an advance to the walls of Paris (1419). The temporary union of the

Armagnac and Burgundian factions in France was broken by the assassination (1419) of the Duke of Burgundy, followed by the renewal of Anglo-Burgundian alliance and

1420 The Treaty of Troyes. The dauphin (later Charles VII) was disinherited; Henry V was designated regent of France and successor to the mad Charles VI, was given control of northern France, and was married to Charles' daughter Catherine. Henry, busy in the reconquest of France, died suddenly, followed shortly by Charles VI (1422)

1422-1461. Henry VI (aged nine months on his accession), acclaimed King of France, his uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, regent (under the council) in England, another uncle, the Duke of Bedford, regent in France

1424. Bedford defeated the French at Verneuil, but his ally the Duke of Burgundy was angered by Gloucester's foolish invasion of Hainault. Bitter feud of Gloucester and Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester and chancellor

1428-1429. English failure at Orléans (Jeanne Darc, p. 278), coronation of Charles VII at Reims (1429).

1431. The English burned Joan of Arc at Rouen and crowned Henry VI King of France in Paris. Steady advance of Charles VII, unpopularity of the war in England, parliamentary resistance to grants, loss of the Burgundian alliance (1435) and of Paris (1436).

1436-1437 Richard, Duke of York (heir to throne) regent in France. He was replaced, after a few successes, by the Earl of Warwick (1437-1439), but later returned to France (1440-1443). Continued rivalry of Beaufort and Gloucester. Beaufort, supported by the king, who liked his peace policy, attended the conference of Calais (1439)

1442. French conquest of Gascony except Bordeaux and Bayonne

1444. The king's new favorite, the Duke of Suffolk, arranged the marriage of Henry and Margaret of Anjou, concluded a truce of two years, and promised to surrender Maine to Charles VII. Margaret was unpopular in England and Maine was not turned over.

1448. Charles VII, in a vigorous renewal of the war, took Maine, completed the conquest of Normandy (1450), and regained Bordeaux and Bayonne (1451). The English effort to reconquer Gascony failed (1453), leaving only Calais in English hands at the end of the Hundred Years' War.

Domestic disorders. Henry, declared of age (-437) was unfit to rule; the council

continued in power, factions and favorites encouraged the rise of disorder. The nobles, enriched by the war and the new sheep farming and progress of enclosures, maintained increasing numbers of private armed retainers (livery and maintenance) with which they fought one another, terrorized their neighbors, paralyzed the courts, and dominated the government. The government lost prestige, Gloucester, arrested (1447) for treason, died in prison. Suffolk (impeached 1450) was killed as he sailed into exile.

1450. Cade's rebellion, a revolt of perhaps 30,000 men of Kent and Sussex including many respectable small land owners, who marched on London to demand reform in government and the restoration of the Duke of York to power. Admitted to London, the marchers were finally crushed after they resorted to violence. Richard of York returned from Ireland and forced his admission to the council (1450). York was regent during Henry's periods of insanity (1453-1454, 1455-1456), but on his recovery (1454) Somerset returned to power.

1455-1485. THE WARS OF THE ROSES
a deadly civil war between the houses of Lancaster and York (the Yorkists wearing a white rose, the Lancastrians [later] a red rose). The nation as such took little part. Battle of St. Albans (1455). Somerset defeated and killed. Battle of Northampton (1460) the Yorkists defeated the royal army and took Henry prisoner. York asserted his hereditary claim to the throne, and the Lords decided that he should succeed Henry on his death (excluding Henry's son, Edward).

1460. Queen Catherine raised an army in the north, defeated Richard of York, who fell on the field (Wakefield 1460). Southern England rallied to Richard's son Edward (aged nineteen) who defeated the Lancastrians at Mortimer's Cross (1461), but was defeated at the second battle of St. Albans (1461), and lost possession of King Henry. London stood firm against Margaret, admitted Edward to the town and after his victory at Towton acclaimed him king (1461).

Growth of the powers of Parliament under the Lancastrians. Profiting by the cloud on the royal title and by the pressing needs for war supply, Parliament reached the zenith of its influence. (1) Grant of supply delayed until the end of the session after redress of grievances, agreement by the king not to alter petitions when drafted into statutes. Petitions began to take the form of bills, which when approved by the king became statutes in the modern sense.

(2) Beginnings of the Commons' control over the initiation of financial legislation (3) Enforcement of reform (1404) in the royal administration, members of the council named in Parliament, appointment of the new council enforced (1405). (4) Parliament forced a reversal of the Haxey judgment (1399), establishing its right to freedom of speech in debate (5) Opposition to packing began to develop and a statute was passed defining the franchise for elections (1430), this statute was in force until the Great Reform Bill of 1832

The king could still legislate by ordinances in council Under Henry VI the autocratic council ruled, and in the end dominated Parliament; finally the chaos of the Wars of the Roses saw the temporary eclipse of Parliament as well as of ordered government

1461-1485 THE HOUSE OF YORK.

1461-1483. EDWARD IV Parliament declared the three Lancastrian kings usurpers and Henry VI, his wife, son, and chief adherents, traitors. Edward closed the session with a speech of thanks to the Commons, the first time an English king had addressed that body The mass of Englishmen now wanted a monarch to keep order in the state, and allow them to attend to trade, industry, and agriculture Civil war continued intermittently, and Henry VI was finally captured (1465) and put in the Tower Edward's marriage to the commoner, Elizabeth Woodville, and the beginnings of the creation of a new nobility, angered the older nobles, especially the Earl of Warwick Edward's sister Margaret was married to Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, and master of the Netherlands (1468) Warwick abandoned the king for his brother, the Duke of Clarence, and began to foment trouble for Edward, now increasingly unpopular (1469-1470) Edward's victory (partly due to artillery) at Stamford (1470) was followed by the flight of Warwick and Clarence

1471. Warwick next turned to the Lancastrians (under the astute guidance of King Louis XI of France), returned to England with Lancastrian support Edward's victory at Barnet (1471), where Warwick was killed Edward then turned on Queen Margaret at Tewksbury, and defeated her Henry VI died (in all probability murdered) in the Tower The only surviving claimant to the crown was Henry, Earl of Richmond, an exile aged 14, descended from John of Gaunt and his mistress, Catherine Swynford.

Edward's vigorous plans for war against Louis XI tary grants too

small, so he began a new practice — benevolences (supposedly free, but in fact forced gifts).

1475 Landing in France, Edward got no support from Charles the Bold, and was bought off by Louis XI Charles the Bold was killed (1477) and Edward was left without an ally

1483 EDWARD V, aged twelve Richard, Duke of Gloucester, Edward's uncle, an able man, good soldier, cruel and cynical, skilled at winning popular support, had been appointed guardian by Edward's will Fearing the Woodvilles (family of Edward's mother), Richard struck at them, taking Earl Rivers and Sir Richard Grey prisoners, the queen mother took sanctuary at Westminster; assassination of Lord Hastings (a supporter of the queen), execution of Grey and Rivers, attacks on the legitimacy of Edward, Parliament declared Gloucester the heir and he was crowned Richard III Edward was sent to the Tower

1483-1485. RICHARD III. The Duke of Buckingham, a former supporter of Richard, led (under the skilled direction of Morton, Bishop of Ely) a rebellion in behalf of Henry, Earl of Richmond The rebellion failed, Buckingham was beheaded, Edward and his brother were murdered in the Tower (1483), and universal indignation was aroused Richard and the Earl of Richmond were both candidates for the hand of Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV, now heiress to the throne As she was Richard's niece, even his own followers were shocked

1485. Henry, Earl of Richmond, landed at Milford Haven, there were open defections from Richard by the nobles, and Henry defeated Richard on Bosworth Field (Aug 22), where Richard fell The crown of England was found on a bush and passed to the first ruler of the great house of Tudor, by virtue of his victory in arms and a later act of Parliament

Cultural movements. The Italian humanist, Poggio Braccionni's visit (1418-1423) to England *The Paston Letters* (1422-1509), a remarkable collection of the correspondence (in the vernacular) of a middle-class English family *The Libel of English Policie* (c 1436), a militant nationalist exposition of the economic value of sea-power Eton founded by Henry VI

Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester (d 1447), influential patron of classical learning and Italian humanism, was the donor of 279 classical manuscripts to Oxford, the nucleus of the university library Sir John F e (d. c. 1470) Chief justice of the

King's Bench a Lancastrian exile during the anarchy of the Wars of the Roses, wrote *On the Governance of the Kingdom of England*, and *De Laudibus Legum Angliæ*, contrasting the "political" (i.e. constitutional) spirit of the English Common Law with the absolutism of the Roman Law, and comparing the French monarchy unfavorably with the English. Many of his ideas foreshadowed the policies of Henry VII, in form if not in spirit.

Caxton's printing press set up at Westminster (1476) under the patronage of Edward IV. Malory's *Morte Arthure* printed (1484), the first book in poetic prose in the English language.

(Cont p. 369)

(2) Scotland, 1305-1488

1305. The conquest of Scotland by Edward I of England saved the country

from civil war. Edward's plan of union seemed possible for a brief period until the emergence of Bruce's grandson, Robert, who turned against the English and maintained himself until the incompetence of Edward II gave him a chance to extend the opposition to the English.

1311-1313. Bruce began a great advance into England and besieged Stirling (1314).

1314, June 24. BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN. Bruce completely defeated the English and established himself on the throne, thus postponing for centuries the union with England. Bruce's daughter, Margaret, married Walter "the Steward" and became the founder of the house of Stuart.

1315-1318. Edward Bruce, brother of the king, led an unsuccessful invasion of Ireland.

1323. A truce of five years with England was followed by the Treaty of Northampton, which recognized Robert Bruce's title and provided for the marriage of his son David to Joanna, daughter of Edward III.

1329-1371. DAVID II, son of Robert, king. His minority was followed by an incompetent rule.

1332. Edward Balliol, with English support, was crowned, and Bruce fled to France. After Balliol's recall to England, Bruce returned and was defeated and captured at

1346. The battle of Neville's Cross, in an effort to aid France by invading England. He was not ransomed until 1357.

This futile reign gave the Scottish Parliament its chance: the burghs had sent representatives to the Parliament of 1326 but

the practice was not a regular one until 1424. On at least two occasions the parliamentary majority went home (1307, 1369), leaving the session to commissions, thus establishing the Lords of Articles, who assumed deliberative functions and soon became tools of the crown. Nevertheless Parliament managed to establish a considerable control over royal acts, and kept its hand on the declaration of war and peace and the coinage. The lower clergy began sending representatives to Parliament (e.g. 1367, 1369, 1370).

1356. Edward Balliol handed over his crown to Edward III.

1363. David Bruce's scheme for a union with England as he died childless was blocked by Parliament's refusal to approve it (1364).

1371. THE STUART LINE was established on the Scottish throne by the accession of

1371-1390. ROBERT II, grandson of Robert Bruce. It maintained itself for three centuries despite a succession of futilities and minorities. The rival house of Douglas was finally extinguished (1488).

1390-1424. ROBERT III, king. The ar rival of James I (1424) after a long imprisonment (since 1405) in England began a vigorous, if premature reform: reduction of violence, restoration of the judicial process, and new legislation which ended anarchy and disciplined the Church. The country lairds were given representation in Parliament as a support to the crown (1428). James was assassinated, 1437.

1437-1460. JAMES II

From James I to Charles I (1625) every sovereign was a minor on his accession. The reduction of the Earls of Douglas (1452), followed by confiscation of their lands, enriched the crown. Rosburgh was taken from the English, leaving only Berwick in alien hands.

1460-1488. JAMES III, a feeble figure, was kidnaped (1466) by Lord Boyd, who ruled as governor (by vote of Parliament). The Orkneys and Shetlands were acquired from Norway (1472). France kept Scotland in contact with the Continent.

(Cont p. 369)

(3) Ireland, 1315-1485

1315. Edward Bruce, brother of Robert Bruce of Scotland, landed in Ireland and, with the aid of native chieftains, had himself crowned (1316). But he was able to maintain himself only until 1318.

The Anglo-Norman colony began to weaken from internal quarrels while Edward III was preoccupied with the Hundred Years' War. The chieftains thereupon seized their opportunity to encroach still further upon the position of the outsiders. From this period dates the gradual ebb of English influence. The Black Death (1348-1349) made matters even worse.

1366 The Statute of Kilkenny (passed during the viceroyalty of Lionel, Duke of Clarence) had two aims (1) to maintain the allegiance of the English colony and keep it to the English tradition, and (2) to reduce the grounds of racial conflict. Marriages with the Irish were forbidden, though this was not an entirely new measure. English was enjoined as the speech of the colonists, and English law was insisted on. Nevertheless, the viceroys and governors were unable to maintain order.

1398. Expedition of Richard II to reduce Ireland. This was followed by permanent results. Under Henry V military in Ireland reached a new peak and perhaps half of the English colony returned home. The danger in this situation is mentioned in the *Libel of English Policy* (c. 1436). Fear that Ireland might pass into other hands was widespread.

1449. Richard of York arrived as viceroy and ingratiated himself equally with colonists and natives. He departed to England in 1450, but on his return made Ireland virtually independent, with the approval of the Irish Parliament. English rule was repudiated and a separate coinage established. Richard continued this policy until his death, but Edward IV resumed a harsh and anarchic policy. Under Richard III the strongest figure in Ireland was Kildare, leader of the Yorkists. (*Cont p 369*)

b. FRANCE, 1314-1483

1314-1316. LOUIS X (*the Quarrelsome*). The real ruler was Louis' uncle, Charles of Valois. A reaction against the monarchy forced concessions from the king. Louis' daughter, Jeanne, was an infant, there was no male heir. A great national council (1316) decreed that there could be no queen regnant in France, and gave the crown to Louis' brother, Philip.

1316-1322 PHILIP V (*the Tall*). There were frequent meetings of assemblies which included burghers. Philip, in an enormous number of royal ordinances, gave definitive form to the Capetian government. He left no male heir.

1322-1328. CHARLES IV (*the Fair*), the last Capetian of the direct line,

succeeded his brother Philip, to the exclusion of Edward III of England, grandson of Philip IV. This established the principle later called the Salic Law, that the throne could pass only through males. On Charles' death, an assembly of barons declared that "no woman nor her son could succeed to the monarchy."

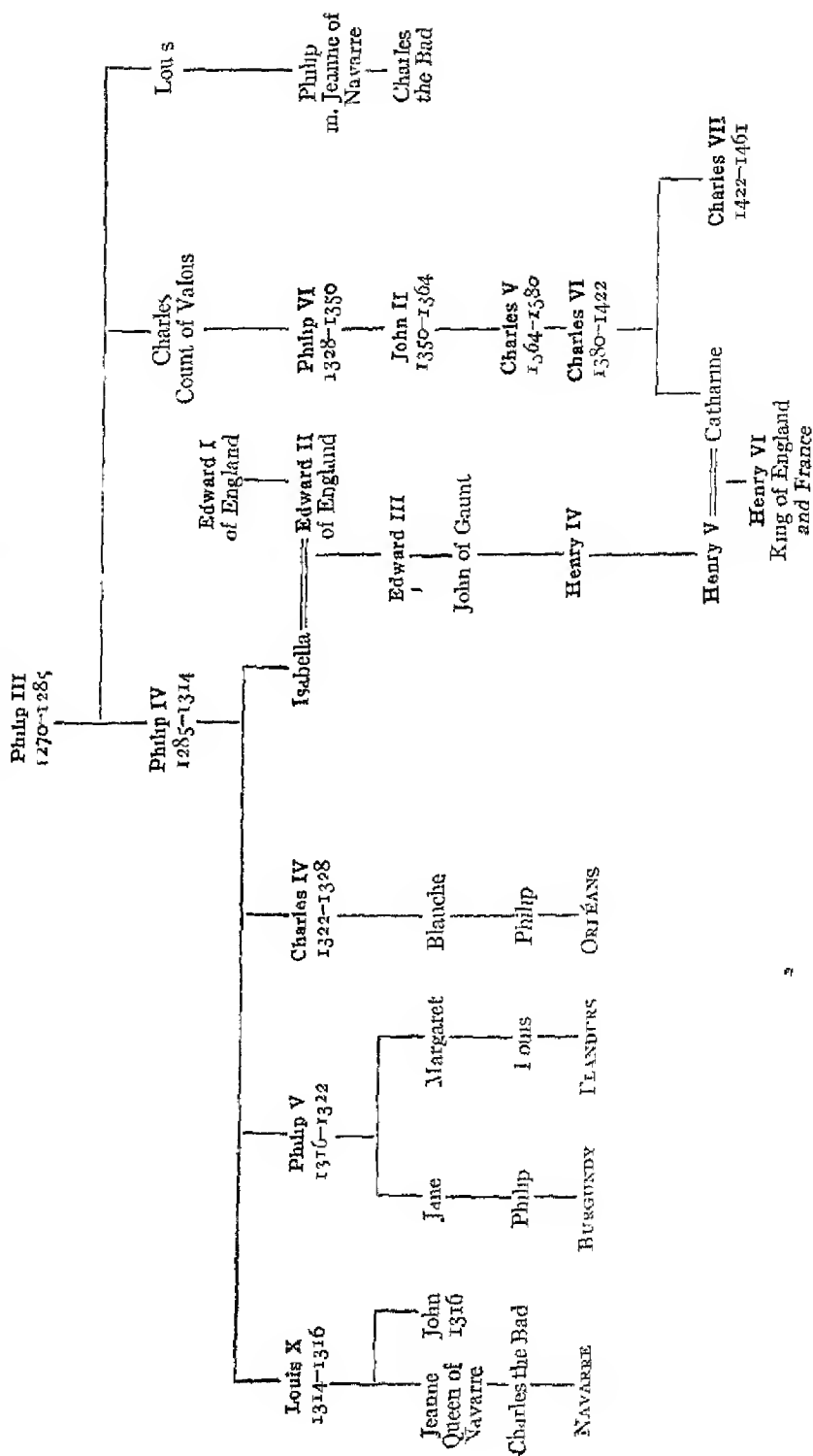
1328-1498 In this period the Capetian house of Valois freed the soil of France from the alien occupation of the English; completed the creation of French national unity and the establishment of a strong national monarchy, prepared France for its brilliant political and cultural role in the Renaissance, and began French expansion south of the Alps.

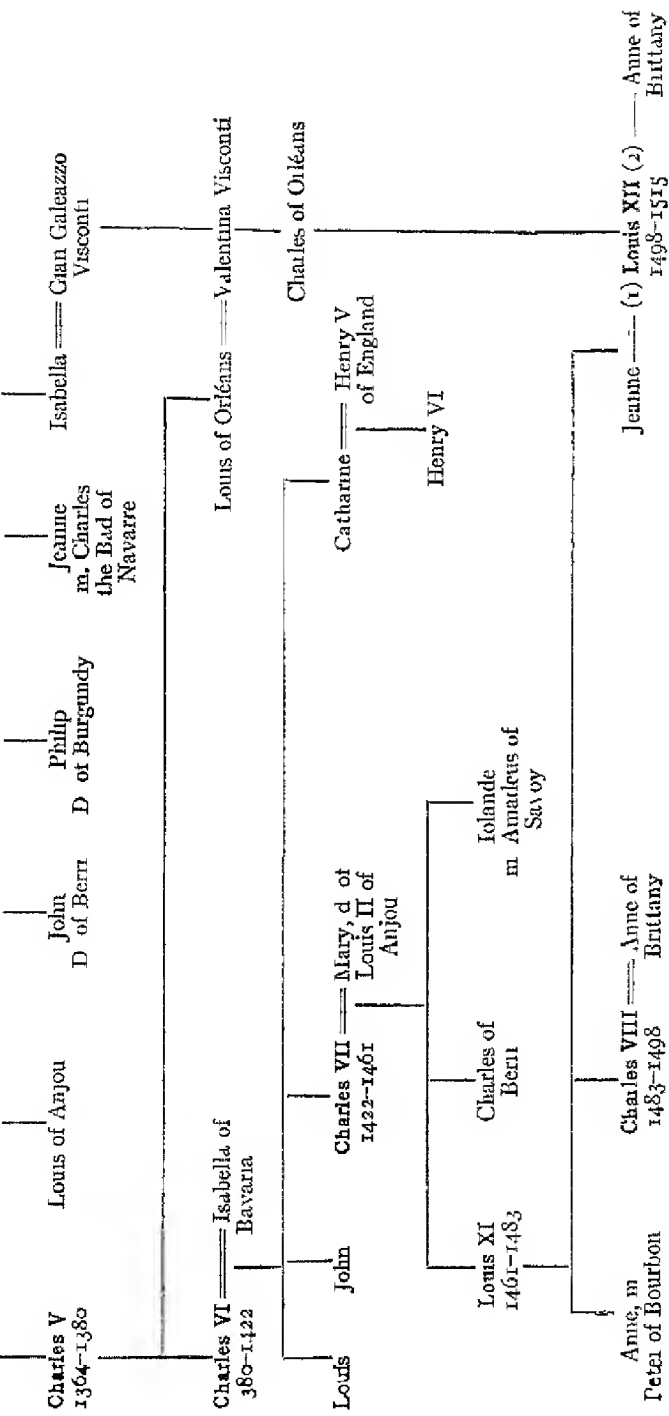
1328-1350 PHILIP VI (nephew of Philip IV, son of Charles of Valois) the nearest male heir. Jeanne, daughter of Louis X, became Queen of Navarre. Edward III did homage for his French fiefs (1329 and 1331). Brittany, Flanders, Guienne, and Burgundy remained outside the royal sway. The papacy was located in France under powerful French influence, rulers of the Capetian house of Anjou were seated on the thrones of Naples, Provence, and Hungary; French interests were firmly established in the Near East, French culture was dominant in England and northern Spain, and was making headway on the fringes of the empire, Dauphiné, the first important imperial fief added to French territory, was purchased (1336). The king had become less accessible, the kingdom, regarded as a possession rather than an obligation, was left to the administration of the royal bureaucracy.

1338-1483. THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR. English commercial dominance in Flanders precipitated a political crisis. The communes made the Count of Flanders, Louis of Nevers, prisoner (1325-1326); Philip marched to his relief, massacred the burghers on the field of Cassel (1328), and established French administration in Flanders. Edward III retorted with an embargo on wool export from England (1336), the weavers of Ghent, under the wealthy James van Artevelde, became virtual masters of the country and made a commercial treaty with England (1338). On Van Artevelde's insistence, Edward declared himself King of France, the Flemings recognized him as their sovereign, and made a political alliance with him (1340).

1338. Philip declared Edward's French fiefs forfeited and invested Guienne. Edward was made Vicar of the Empire and his title as King of France was recognized by the r. Thus began the Hundred

The French Succession, 1328





Years' War, really, a series of wars with continuous common objectives, the retention of their French "empire" by the English, the liberation of their soil by the French.

1340. Philip by dismissing two squadrons of Levantine mercenary ships, lost his mastery of the Channel until 1372 and was overwhelmingly defeated by Edward at the naval battle of Sluys (June 24). This opened the Channel to the English and gave them free access to northern France.

1341-1364. A dynastic contest in Brittany, in which both Edward and Philip intervened.

1341. First collection of the *gabelle* (salt tax) in France; increasing war levies and mounting dissatisfaction.

1346. Edward's invasion of Normandy and overwhelming **VICTORY AT CRÉCY**, Aug. 26 (10,000 English defeated some 20,000 French). The French military system was outmoded, the people unaccustomed to arms and the chivalry inefficient. Blind King John of Bohemia was slain. Artillery came into use (1335-1345). Continued war levies led to open refusal (1346) of a grant by the Estates-General of Languedoc, and a demand for reforms. The king attempted some reforms.

1347. Edward's siege and capture of Calais gave the English an economic and military base in France which was held until 1558.

1348-1350. The Black Death penetrated northern Europe, reducing the population by about a third and contributing to the crisis of 1357-1358 in France.

1350-1364. **JOHN II** (*the Good Fellow*), a "good knight and a mediocre king," a spendthrift who repeatedly debased the currency.

1356. English renewal of the war in a triple advance into Brittany, from the Channel, and from Bordeaux by the Black Prince. Virtual collapse of French finance. The Estates-General of Languedoc and Languedoc (the latter under the leadership of Etienne Marcel, the richest man in Paris, provost of the merchants), forced the king (ordinance of 1355) to agree to consult the Estates before making new levies of money, a policy already in practice, and to accept supervision of the collection and expenditure of these levies by a commission from the Estates. Charles cleverly induced the Estates to adjourn, debased the coinage in the interest of his treasury, and organized his opposition to the Estates.

1356. The Black Prince (the English "model of chivalry") defeated John the last "chivalrous" King of France, at Poitiers (Sept. 19). King John, his son Philip, and two brothers were taken prisoner with a multitude of the French aristocracy. The royal authority in France was reduced to a shadow, civil chaos reigned. Charles the eighteen-year-old son of John, became regent.

1357. **Climax of the power of the Estates-General:** The Estates-General again had to be called and passed the **Great Ordinance** which provided for supervision of the levy and expenditure of taxes by a standing committee of the Estates, regular and frequent meetings of the Estates, poor relief, and many other reforms, but did not attempt to reduce the traditional powers of the monarchy. The Estates had met too frequently, were divided, and had no real coherence or skill in government. They were discredited by Marcel's alliance with Charles the Bad of Navarre (a son of Jeanne, daughter of Louis X.) who had a better claim to the throne than Edward III. Charles V fled from Paris and created a powerful coalition against the Estates and Charles the Bad.

1358. The *Jacquerie* (a violent peasant reaction against war taxes, the weight of the ransoms of the captives at Poitiers and the pillage of the free companies) led to a merciless reaction by the nobles. Marcel, already distrusted, was further discredited by intrigues with the revolted peasantry and with the English. Charles, after the murder of Marcel (1358), returned to the capital, repressed disorder with a firm hand, and refused to approve John's preliminary peace (1359), which virtually restored the old Angevin lands in France to Edward.

1360. **THE PEACE OF BRETAGNY** (Calais) (virtually a truce of mutual exhaustion). Edward practically abandoned his claims to the French crown, Charles yielded southwestern France (Guenne), Calais, Ponthieu and the territory immediately about them, and promised an enormous ransom for John. King John was released on partial payment of the ransom, but returned after the flight of a hostage to die in his luxurious and welcome captivity in England. The southern provinces protested their return to English rule, and there were clear signs of national sentiment born of adversity.

1361. The Duchy of Burgundy escheated to the crown, and John handed it to his son Philip as an appanage (1363). Charles negotiated (1369) the marriage of Duke Philip to Margaret, daughter and

heirress of Louis de Male, last Count of Flanders, in order to keep Flanders out of English hands. As Mary brought Flanders, the County of Burgundy, Artois, Nevers, and Rethel under control of the Dukes of Burgundy, this marriage added a new danger on the east and north to the Plantagenet threat in the west. Philip further strengthened his house by marriage alliances with the children of the Wittelsbach, Albert of Bavaria, which added holdings in Hamault, Holland, and Zealand.

1364-1380 CHARLES V (*the Wise*).

neither strong of body, handsome, nor chivalrous, a pious, refined, realistic statesman of modern cast. He saved France and made it plain to the nation that national well-being depended on the monarchy rather than on the Estates-General.

The reign opened with a bad harvest, plague, and pillage by the free companies (discharged soldiers). The Breton, Bertrand du Guesclin, the first great soldier on the French side in the Hundred Years' War, was sent with some 30,000 of these men to support Henry of Trastámara against Pedro the Cruel of Castile, who had become an ally of the Black Prince.

Charles managed to dominate the new financial machinery set up by the Estates-General, continued the war levies (e.g. hearth-tax, *gabelle*, sales taxes) and utilized the peace for general reform and reconstruction: castles were rebuilt, and royal control of them strengthened, permanent companies of professional cavalry and infantry were established, artillery was organized and supported by pioneers and sappers, a military staff and hierarchy of command established in the army (1374), the navy was reorganized, and French sea-power restored. New walls were built around Paris.

The government and finance were re-organized and the general frame of the financial structure fixed until 1789. The grant of the Estates-General of Languedoc (1360) for John's ransom had been for a term of six years, their grant of a hearth-tax (1363) was without a time limit. Following these precedents, Charles was able (1369) to induce the Estates to agree to the general principle that old grants of funds need not be renewed by the Estates unless their terms were to be changed. This freed the king from control by the Estates unless new taxes were needed and meant that the Estates no longer had a vital function. The financial control established by the Estates (1357) was transferred to the royal *de comptes* in Paris.

1369. The appeal of the Count of Armagnac to Charles against the Black Prince and the Black Prince's refusal to appear at Charles' court served as an excuse for the resumption of the war. Du Guesclin became (1370) Constable of France (a title usually reserved for great nobles), abandoned chivalrous tactics, and allowed the English to parade through France. Avoiding pitched battle, he harassed the invaders with a picked force. The reconquest of Poitou and Brittany (1370-1372) was followed by the death of the Black Prince (1376), the French fleet supported by the Castilian, regained control (La Rochelle, 1372) of the Channel and blocked English transport in the north. By 1380 the English held only Bordeaux, Bayonne, Brest, Calais, Cherbourg, Valais, and their immediately surrounding territory. France was cleared of the enemy, but was in ruins.

1378. With the end of the Avignonese Captivity (1376) the Great Schism in the Church began. Charles and his successors supported the French line of popes. On his deathbed Charles forbade the hearth-tax.

1380-1422. CHARLES VI. A minority accompanied by the disruptive rivalry of the king's uncles (the Dukes of Anjou, Berry, and Burgundy, the "Princes of the Lilies"), who exploited France for their own ends. This was followed by the intermittent insanity of the king, and paralysis in the government.

General economic distress, popular unrest, and general revolts, usually against taxes (vigorously repressed): the *Tuchins* (1381) in Languedoc, the *Mauclains* (1382) in Paris, and elsewhere; and the outbreak in Flanders (1382) under Philip (son of James) van Artevelde. The French feudality, under leadership of the Duke of Burgundy, ended this revolt by the victory of Roosebeke (1382), following it up with atrocious repression. Flanders on the death of the Count (1384) passed to Burgundy, its pacification was completed in 1385. The hearth-tax was renewed and taxation remained heavy.

1388. The death (1384) of the Duke of Anjou had left the Duke of Burgundy in a position of great power, and Charles, angered at Philip of Burgundy's policies, began his personal rule by replacing the duke by his own brother, Louis, Duke of Orleans, and by restoring (1389) his father's old advisers, men of humble birth (whence their nickname, the *Mar mousets*). Louis of Orleans was a refined, talented spendthrift, unpopular in Paris, and Philip of Burgundy supported by

Queen Isabella) was able to pose as a reformer and lead the opposition, bringing the rivalry of Burgundy and Orléans into the open.

1392. Charles' first (brief) attack of insanity was soon followed by longer seizures, Philip of Burgundy (as regent) replaced Louis of Orléans in power and the situation returned to what it was before 1389.

1396. Twenty-year truce with England, annihilation of the French knights on a crusade to free Hungary from the Turk (Nicopolis, p. 326).

1404 John (*the Fearless*), an able, ambitious man, became Duke of Burgundy. After the sudden transfer of Isabella's support to Louis of Orléans, John's orders led to the assassination of Louis, Duke of Orléans (1407). John became the hero of Paris, but caused the emergence of two great factions in France and began the civil war of the Armagnacs against the Burgundians. The Armagnacs, named for their head, the Count of Armagnac (father-in-law of Charles, the new Duke of Orléans), were strong among the great nobles, drew their strength from the south and southeast, were a reactionary, anti-English, war party. The Burgundians, supported by the people, the University of Paris, and the Wittelsbachs, were strong in the north and northeast, favored peace, were pro-English, and supported Pope Clement VII and his papal successors.

1413. The Cabochian revolt (named for the skinner, Simon Cabochie) in Paris forced attention to reform, and led to the Cabochian Ordinance (1413), inspired by the University of Paris and aimed at efficiency in government rather than democracy. It provided for three councils to conduct public business, and a general detailed program of reform. The Armagnacs returned to control in Paris and led a feudal reaction, which destroyed all hope of reform and opened the way for the English. The Duke of Armagnac (Constable, 1415) repeated the traditional military errors of the feudal class, which understood tournaments but not war.

1415, Oct. 25. THE BATTLE OF AGINCOURT. Henry V, with 10,000 men, defeated three times that number of French, the Duke of Orléans was taken prisoner, Normandy was reconquered (1415-1417) by the English, undoing for the time the work of Philip Augustus, the dauphin (later Charles VII) fled to the south of France (1418): the Burgundians returned to power and there was a massacre of
in Paris (1418).

1419. Rouen fell, the Burgundians, alarmed at the English advance, began negotiating with the Armagnacs, John of Burgundy was assassinated at a conference with the dauphin at the Bridge of Montereau, and the Burgundians returned to the English alliance.

1420. Charles, under Burgundian influence, and supported by his wife Isabella, accepted the Treaty of Troyes (which repudiated the dauphin as illegitimate), adopted Henry V of England as his heir and immediate regent (with the approval of the University of Paris and the Estates-General, 1421). Charles' daughter, Catharine, was married to the future Henry V and, also under the treaty, the English were allowed to retain all their conquests as far as the Loire. King Henry V drove the forces of the dauphin across the Loire and began the steady conquest of France which continued uninterrupted until his death (1422). The dauphin remained at Bourges (whence his nickname, *the Roi de Bourges*).

1422-1461. CHARLES VII (*the Roi de Bourges*, not crowned until 1429). Physically weak, bowed and lethargic from misfortune, the puppet of unscrupulous advisers until the advent of a better group (including Dunois, Richemont, brother in law of the Duke of Burgundy, La Hire, *et al.*), after 1433, when he became known as "Charles the Well-Served." Regency of the Duke of Bedford (1422-1428) for the infant Henry VI of England, who was recognized as King of France in the north, supported by the Burgundians, and crowned in Paris (1436).

1424. Bedford's decisive victory at Cravant was followed by the defeat of the Armagnacs and the Scots at Verneuil.

1428. The English began the siege of Orleans. Jeanne Darc (later D'Arc in Charles' patent of nobility), born in 1412 at Domrémy, was of comfortable village family, illiterate, but a good seamstress. A devout mystic, she began to have visions at the age of thirteen.

1429. Jeanne presented herself to the king at Chinon, and was allowed to lead an army (with the empty title of *Chef de Guerre*) to the relief of Orléans. The relief of the city, followed by Charles' coronation (1429) at Reims, was the turning point of the war and marked a decisive change in the spirit of the king and the nation. Jealous ministers (e.g. *La Trémoille*) of Charles soon undermined Jeanne's position, despite the progress of the royal

1430. Jeanne was captured at Compiègne by the Burgundians, ransomed by the English. Without intervention by Charles on her behalf, she was tried for witchcraft. The process was probably a typical ecclesiastical trial. After her confession and its repudiation she was burned (1431) by the English at Rouen ("We have burned a saint"). and Charles returned to his old ways.

1432 Charles favored the Council of Basel, which was pro-French and anti-papal.

1435. Separate Peace of Arras, reconciliation with Burgundy. Charles agreed to punish the murderers of Duke John of Burgundy and recognized Philip as a sovereign prince for his Burgundy was to recognize Charles' title; the Somme towns were to pass to Burgundy (subject to redemption). The English refused to make peace on acceptable terms. Charles recovered Paris (1436).

1436-1449. Period of military inaction, utilized by Charles for reforms of the army paid for from the *taille*. The Estates-General agreed to permanent taxation for support of the army. Charles entered Paris and was welcomed (1437).

1437-1439. Famine, pestilence, the anarchy of the *ecouteurs*, but steady progress against the English.

1438 THE PRAGMATIC SANCTION OF BOURGES. assertion that a church council is superior to a pope, suppression of the annates; provision for decennial councils, maintenance of the autonomy of the French national Church (*Gallicanism*) and its isolation from Rome.

1440. The Praguerie, part of a series of coalitions of great nobles against the king, with support from the dauphin (later Louis XI), was put down, the dauphin was ordered to the Dauphiné, where he continued his intrigues.

1445-1446 Army reforms: establishment of the first permanent royal army by the creation of 20 companies of élite cavalry (200 lances to a company, 6 men to a lance) under captains chosen by the king, a paid force, the backbone of the army, assigned to garrison towns, regularization of the auxiliary free archers (*francs-archers*), a spontaneous body dating from the reign of Charles V (opposed by the nobles), under royal inspection (1448) and under territorial captains (1451). Establishment of artillery (the Bureau brothers).

1444. Louis the dauphin made a treaty of alliance with the Swiss cantons. The alliance was strengthened (1452) and an alliance made with the of Trer

Cologne, *et al* (1452), and with Saxony, as part of a developing anti-Burgundian policy. Intermittent support for the house of Anjou in Naples and the house of Orléans in Milan. Under Jacques Coeur, the merchant prince of Montpellier, royal finances were reformed, control of the public revenue by the king established, and French commercial penetration of the Near East furthered (c 1447).

1449-1461. Expulsion of the English: Normandy and Guienne regained, Talbot slain (1453).

1456. Retrial and rehabilitation of Jeanne Darc, to clear Charles' royal title.

1461-1483. LOUIS XI (*the Spider*), of simple, bourgeois habits, superficial piety, and feeble, ungainly body, the architect of French reconstruction and royal absolutism. He was well-educated, a brilliant diplomat, a relentless statesman, an endless traveler throughout his kingdom. He perfected the governmental system begun under Charles V (revived by Charles VII), and established the frame of the constitution until 1789. The recognized right of the king to the *taille*, the *aides*, and the *gabelle* made a good revenue available for defense and diplomacy. Louis improved and perfected the standing army with added emphasis on the artillery, but seldom waged war. Feudal anarchy and brigandage were stopped, a wise economic policy restored national prosperity despite grinding taxes.

1461. Louis' first step in the reconstruction of the kingdom was a *rapprochement* with the papacy by the formal revocation of the Pragmatic Sanction of Bourges. Little of the royal power was sacrificed, and the national Church remained under the firm control of the crown. Louis steadily reduced urban liberties and began the extinction of local and provincial administrative independence in the interests of royal centralization.

1462. Acquisition of Cerdagne and Roussillon, redemption of the Somme towns (1463) revealing the resumption of national expansion.

1465. League of the Public Weal, a conspiracy against Louis by the Dukes of Alençon, Burgundy, Berry, Bourbon, Lorraine.

1465. Louis' defeat by the league at Montlhéry. The Treaty of Conflans restored the Somme towns to Burgundy, and Normandy to the Duke of Berry. Louis began to evade the treaty at once, and split the league by diplomacy.

Louis' greatest rival was Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy. Philip was head of the first of the Low Co

since the days of Charlemagne, a curious approximation of the ancient Lotharingia, which included the Duchy and County of Burgundy, Flanders, Artois, Brabant, Luxemburg, Holland, Zealand, Friesland, Hamault. The dukes lacked only Alsace and Lorraine and the royal title.

1467. The accession of Charles the Bold as Duke of Burgundy opened the final duel with Burgundy.

1468. Anglo-Burgundian alliance; marriage of Charles the Bold to Margaret of York.

1468. The affair at Péronne. Charles, assuming Louis' treachery in the revolt of Ghent, arrested him at a conference at Péronne.

1469. The Duke Sigismund ceded Charles' rights in Alsace. Charles occupied Alsace and Lorraine (1473). Louis formed an alliance with the Swiss (1470) and seized the Somme towns (1472).

1474. Louis formed the Union of Constance (a coalition of the foes of Burgundy, under French subsidies) which opened the war on Charles.

1475. Edward IV, an ally of Charles, invaded France; Louis met him at Piquigny and bought him off.

1476. Charles' conquest of Lorraine and war on the Swiss cantons' defeat of Charles at Grandson and Morat.

1477, Jan 5. DEFEAT AND DEATH OF CHARLES AT NANCY (triumph of the Swiss pikeman over cavalry), end of the Burgundian menace. Louis united the Duchy of Burgundy to the crown and occupied the County of Burgundy (Franche Comté). Flanders stood by the daughter of Charles, Mary of Burgundy, and was lost to France forever. Mary hurriedly married the Hapsburg Prince Maximilian, the "heir" to the empire.

1480. On the extinction of the house of Anjou, Anjou, Bar, Maine, and Provence fell to the French crown. Bar completed Louis' mastery on the eastern frontier.

The most significant internal fact of the reign is the development of a clear basis for royal absolutism. Only one meeting of the Estates-General was held (1469), and on that occasion the Estates asked the king to rule without them in future. Legislation was henceforth by royal decree, a situation which facilitated Louis' thoroughgoing reform of the government and administration.

Philippe de Commines, a Fleming who left the service of Charles the Bold for that of Louis, produced in his *Memoirs* the finest piece of critical history since the days of

the great historians of antiquity, and was a precursor of Machiavelli.

François Villon (b. 1431), a lyric poet of the first rank.

Jan (d. 1240) and Hubert van Eyck, Flemish painters in the service of the court of Burgundy, perfected oil technique; religious painting, portraiture, raising the painter's art to the highest stage of proficiency and perfection. (*Cont. p. 381*)

c. THE IBERIAN PENINSULA

(1) Castile, 1312-1492

The successors of Alfonso X were not conspicuous for capacity. Frequent minorities and constant dynastic contests still further weakened the authority of the crown. Most outstanding of the Castilian rulers in this period was

1312-1350. ALFONSO XI, who decisively defeated the joint attack of the Spanish and Moroccan Moslems. His victory at Rio Salado (Oct. 30, 1340) ended the African menace forever and was the chief battle in the whole history of the reconquest.

Throughout the Hundred Years' War (p. 273) Castile supported France, but attempted to avoid hostility with England as much as possible.

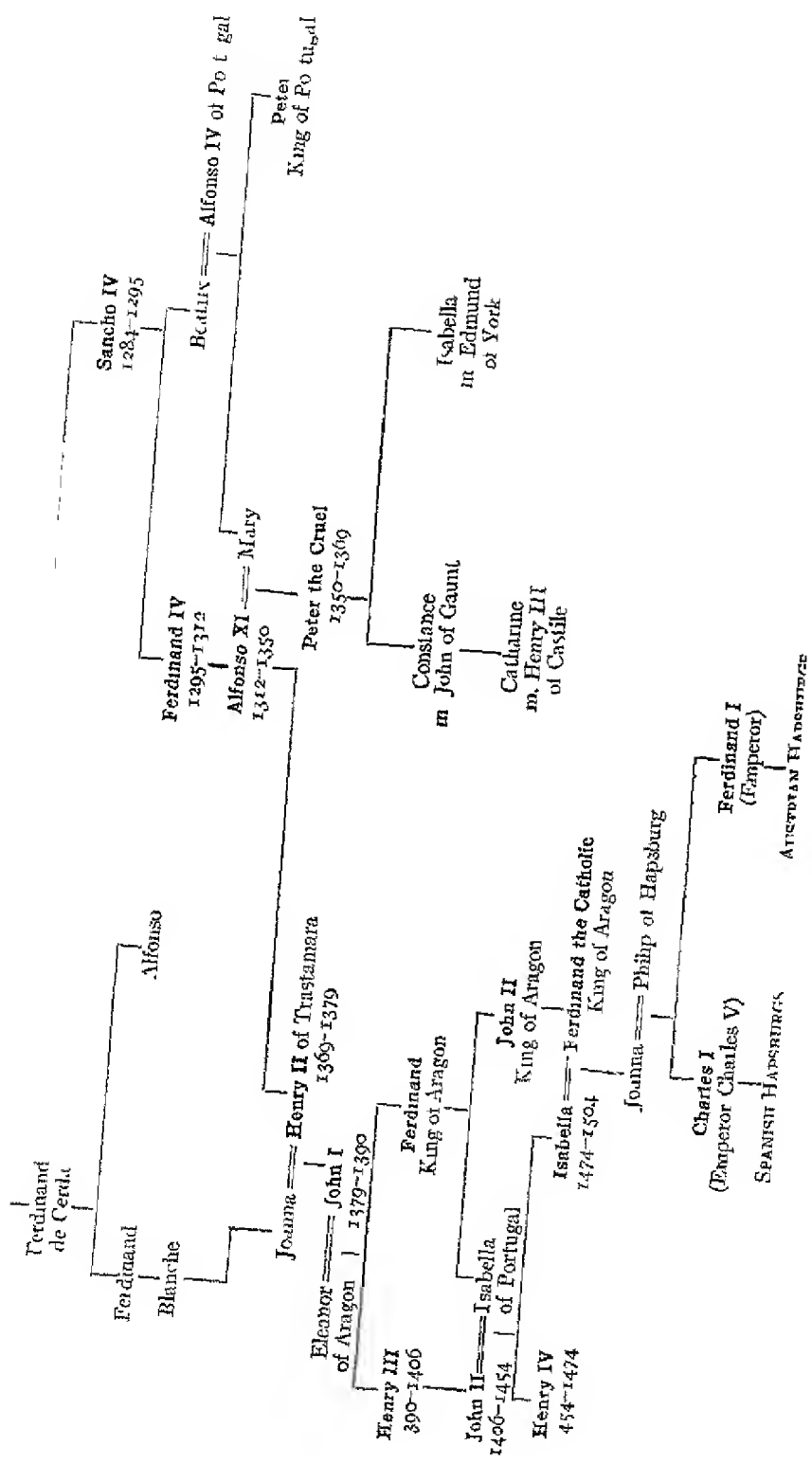
1350-1369. PETER (*Pedro, the Cruel*)

His reign was in fact little more than a nineteen-year dynastic conflict with his half-brother, the bastard Henry of Trastámara. The French, alienated by Peter's outrageous treatment of his wife, Blanche of Bourbon, supported Henry and sent Du Guesclin to Spain. The English (the Black Prince) supported Peter. Henry was defeated at Navarrete (1367), but the English were soon estranged by Peter's vicious character. Ultimately Henry defeated and killed Peter (1369).

1369-1379. HENRY II (*Trastámara*), who renewed the alliance with France. The Castilian fleet, by its victory over the English in the battle of La Rochelle (1372), restored command of the Channel to the French. Peace between Castile on the one side and Portugal and Aragon on the other concluded at Almazan (1374).

1375. Rapprochement of Castile and Aragon, through the marriage of Henry's son, John, to Eleanor, daughter of Peter IV of Aragon.

Castilian leadership in the reconquest of Moslem Spain led to a maximum of local and municipal self-government between the middle of the 12th and the middle of the 14th century. The Cortes apparently originated from councils of nobles dating from Visigothic days. The Castilian rulers re- y



gran edif. es (charters of self government) to towns in the early stages of the reconquest, and definite elements of democracy appeared in municipal government in this period. By calling the burghers to the Cortes, the kings found allies against the baronage, and this process began in Castile and Leon at least as early as 1188 (in Aragon probably not before 1250). The Cortes reached its zenith in the 14th and 15th centuries, but petitions to the crown were received and embodied in legislation as early as the 13th century.

Urban groups, the *hermandades* (brotherhoods), sworn to defend the laws of the realm and the lives and property of their members, were clearly developed in the 13th century (e.g. Sancho's, 1282, directed against his father, Alfonso X) and usually supported the kings in periods of crisis (minorities succession struggles, baronial assaults). The decline of the *hermandades* is associated with the municipal decline and the appearance of the royal *corregidores* in the towns (14th century), but it is not clear whether the crown hastened the decay of the towns and the brotherhoods or sought to stave it off.

Despite all this support, the battle of the kings with the aristocracy, firmly entrenched during the early stages of the reconquest, was a losing one. The nobles were exempt from taxes and from many laws, in general the same was true of the clergy, and some of the great bishops were virtual sovereigns.

The status of the lower classes of Castile was, however, far from desperate. Jew and Moslem were protected for their economic value, though the tendency toward jealousy and toward the segregation of the Jews was already appearing and the Jewish population was declining. The status of rural workers and serfs tended to improve by the definition and limitation of the landlord's rights. Slavery had probably disappeared by the 15th century.

1454-1474. HENRY IV, during whose reign the feudal anarchy reached its apogee. The monarchical power was saved primarily through the support of the towns.

1469. Marriage of Isabella, stepsister and heiress of Henry IV, to Ferdinand, heir of the King of Aragon.

1474. ISABELLA succeeded to the Castilian throne. Isabella's succession was challenged by the daughter of Henry IV, supported by Alfonso V of Portugal. But the Cortes of Segovia (1475) recognized Isabella and Ferdinand and the latter defeated the Portuguese in 1476 (battle of Toro).

1479. FERDINAND succeeded to the rule of Aragon, Catalonia, Valencia.

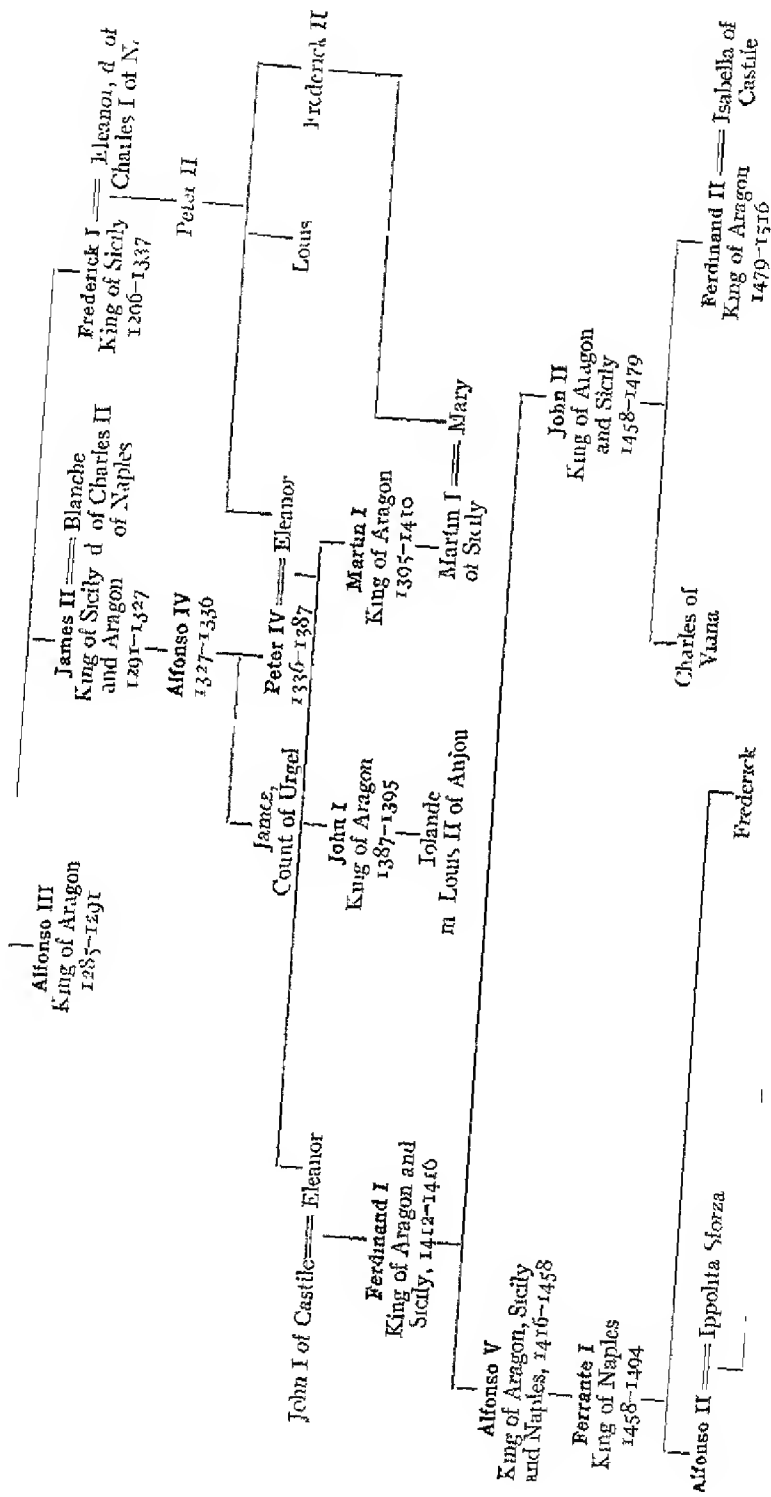
A form of dyarchical government was set up for the united Castilian and Aragonese crowns. Rule of the Catholic kings (Ferdinand and Isabella). Restoration of the royal power in Castile by revising the town charters, the towns were made centers of resistance to feudal aggression, formation of the *Santa Hermandad*, a union of Castilian towns in the interest of royal authority and order. The great feudal magnates were deprived of many of their possessions and rights and a royal administration was gradually established. The *Libro de Monjuico* (1485), the first codification of Spanish law. Concordat of 1462 with the pope, carefully restricting the power of Rome over the Spanish Church; the king became grand master of the powerful religious orders of knighthood. The Inquisition (established in 1478) wholly under royal control, used primarily for the persecution of the Marranos (converted Jews secretly practicing their old faith). Confiscations of property did much to increase the financial power of the rulers and to strengthen them in the work of subduing the feudal opposition.

1492. Fall of Granada, marking the end of the reconquest of Spain from the Moors. This was speedily followed by a spiritual reconquest, the work of the Inquisition. The expulsion of the Jews (possibly as many as 200,000) in 1492 was followed by that of the Moors in Castile (1502).

Art and literature. Castilian painting showed the influence of the school of Giotto (after c. 1350) and in the 15th century came under Flemish inspiration (visit of Jan van Eyck, 1428-1429). In general literature and learning followed the same foreign tendencies as architecture and painting. French influence came in early, followed later by Italian and English (notably Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, Gower). Introduction of printing at Valencia (c. 1474) and in Castile (c. 1475).

(2) Aragon, 1276-1479

1276-1285. PETER III, who was married to Constance, daughter of Manfred and heir of the Hohenstaufen. In 1282 he sailed on a long-planned expedition for the conquest of Sicily (which he disguised as an African crusade). He landed at Collo, was called to the throne, defeated Charles at Anjou and became Peter I of Sicily (1282-1285), refusing to do homage to the pope for his island kingdom. This expansion of the Aragonese Kingdom gave Ara-



gon for a time predominance in the western Mediterranean. But it estranged the Aragonese aristocracy, as well as the towns. The nobility therefore formed the Union for Liberty and in the Cortes of 1283, extorted from Peter a General Privilege which defined the rights and duties of the nobles, affirmed the principle of due process of law, and provided for annual meetings of the Cortes.

1285-1291. ALFONSO III was obliged to make a sweeping regrant of the Privileges of Union (1287), the so-called *Magna Carta of Aragon*.

1291-1327. JAMES II (King of Sicily, 1285-1295). He exchanged the investiture of Sardinia and Corsica for that of Sicily (1295), which thereupon passed to his brother Frederick, who established the separate Sicilian dynasty. James began the expulsion of the Genoese and Pisans from Sardinia (1323-1324), a process not finally completed until 1421. For a period Aragon held the Duchy of Athens (first indirectly through Sicily, 1311-1377 then directly, to 1388), thanks to the activity of the Grand Catalan Company (p. 322).

1327-1336. ALFONSO IV.

1336-1387. PETER IV. He was virtually a prisoner of the revived union of the nobility and had to confirm their privileges. But, after a victory over the union (at Epita, 1348), he broke up the coalition and gradually restricted the power of the aristocracy in Aragon and Valencia. The clergy and the towns had far less power than in Castile, while the rural workers and serfs suffered a much harder lot.

1377. On the death of Frederick II of Sicily, Peter IV, as the husband of Frederick's sister, sent his son Martin as viceroy to Sicily.

1387-1395. John, king

1395-1410. Martin, king. He reunited Aragon and Sicily (1409). On his death the native dynasty came to an end.

1410-1416. Ferdinand I, of Castile, a grandson of Peter IV, succeeded to the throne.

1416-1458. ALFONSO V (*the Magnanimous*). His attention was engrossed by the desire to conquer Naples. After long diplomatic intrigues and occasional combats, he succeeded (1435), being recognized as king by the pope in 1442. Alfonso, a lover of Italy and passionate *dévoté* of the Renaissance, shifted the center of gravity of the Aragonese Empire and subordinated the interest of Aragon to that of Naples. Aragon was ruled by his brother John, as viceroy. On the

death of Alfonso, Naples passed to his son Ferrante (1458-1494).

1458-1479. John II, king.

1479-1516. FERDINAND II, king. Union of Aragon with Castile.

(Cont p. 387)

(3) Portugal, 1279-1495

1279-1325. DINIZ (*the Worker*), the best-known and best-loved king of mediaeval Portugal. An ardent poet, he did much to raise the cultural level of the court. His interest in agriculture and constant effort toward economic development (commercial treaty with England, 1294) resulted in greater prosperity. Beginning of Portuguese naval activity (under Venetian and Genoese guidance). Foundation (1290) of the University of Lisbon, which was soon (1308) moved to Coimbra.

1325-1357. AFONSO IV (*the Brave*), whose reign was scarred by dynastic troubles. The murder of Inez de Castro (1355), the mistress and later the wife of Afonso's son Peter, at the behest of Afonso. This episode, the subject of much literature, led to a revolt of Peter.

1340. The Portuguese in alliance with Castile, defeated the Moors in the battle of Salado.

1357-1367. PETER I (*the Severe*) a harsh and hasty, though just ruler, who continued his predecessor's efforts in behalf of the general welfare.

1367-1383. FERDINAND I (*the Handsome*), a weak ruler whose love for Leonora Telles led him to repudiate his betrothal to a Castilian princess and so bring on a war with Castile.

1383. Regency of Queen Leonora in behalf of Ferdinand's daughter, Beatrice, who was married to John I of Castile. This arrangement led to strong opposition among the Portuguese, who detested both the regent and her lover and resented all control from outside.

1385-1433. JOHN I, an illegitimate son of Peter I, established the Avis dynasty after leading a successful revolt and driving the regent out of the country. He was proclaimed king by the Cortes of Coimbra, but his position was at once challenged by the Castilians, who twice invaded Portugal and besieged Lisbon.

1385, Aug. 14. THE BATTLE OF ALJUBARROTA, in which the Portuguese defeated the Castilians. A decisive date in the history of the country, this battle established the independence of Portugal beyond all possibility of challenge. With the Avis dynasty Portugal entered

upon the greatest period of her history. The king himself was an able and enlightened ruler, who enjoyed the aid of five outstanding sons, of whom Henry the Navigator (1394-1460) became the greatest figure in the history of the epoch-making discoveries of the 15th century (p. 363).

1386, May 9. The Treaty of Windsor, by which England and Portugal became permanently allied. King John married Philippa, the daughter of John of Gaunt. The dynasty thereby became part English.

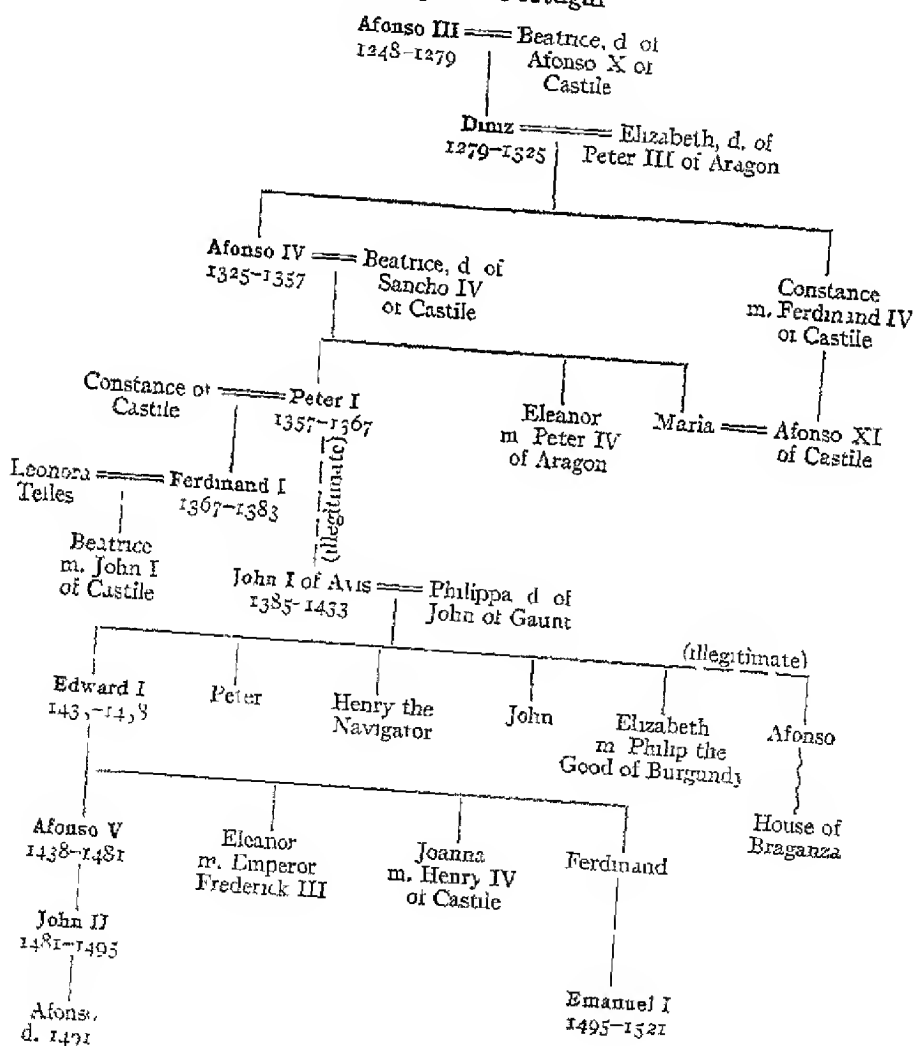
1411. Peace was finally concluded with Castile.

1415, Aug. 24. The Portuguese took Ceuta from the Moors, thus initiating a policy of expansion on the African mainland.

1433-1438. Edward (Duarte) I, a learned and intelligent prince, eldest son of John. His short reign was marked by a terrific epidemic of the plague and by

1437. The disaster at Tangier, where the Portuguese were overwhelmingly defeated. They were obliged to promise to

Kings of Portugal



return Ceuta, and to leave in Moorish hands the youngest brother of the king Ferdinand (*the Constant Prince*), who died in captivity after five years of suffering. Ceuta was not returned.

1437-1481. AFONSO V (*the African*), an attractive and chivalrous ruler, but lacking the hard-headed realism of his predecessors. The reign began with the regency of the king's mother, Eleonora, a Spanish princess, who again was confronted with Portuguese opposition to a Spanish connection. The nobility revolted, the regent fled, and the king's uncle, Peter, was made regent. His able and enlightened rule came to an end when the king, having reached his majority, allowed himself to be persuaded by favorites to make war on Peter. The latter and his son were defeated and killed in the battle of Alfarrobeira (1449).

1446. The *Ordenações Afonsinas*, the first great law code of the Portuguese, representing an amalgam of Roman, Visigothic, and customary law.

1463. Campaigns against the Kingdom of Fez. The Portuguese captured Casablanca and

1471. Tangiers

1476. Battle of Toro. Defeat of the Portuguese by the Castilians, after Afonso, who had married a sister of Isabella, attempted to dispute the latter's succession to the throne.

1481-1495. JOHN II, an energetic prince who at once undertook to restrict the property and power of the nobility, which had become very great during the preceding reign. This led to a revolt of the nobles, led by Ferdinand of Braganza and supported by the Catholic Kings of Castile and Aragon. The revolt was suppressed in 1483, Braganza and many of his followers were executed. The royal power thenceforth was more firmly established than ever before. (*Cont p 390*)

d. ITALY AND THE PAPACY

(1) *The Papacy, 1305-1492*

1305-1378. THE AVIGNONESE PAPACY (*Babylonian Captivity*) during seven pontificates the popes, exiled from the spiritual capital of the west preferred to contend against the pressure of the French crown rather than face the disorder of Rome and Italy.

1310-1313. Expedition of the Emperor Henry VII to Italy (p 301). Henry asserted his independence of the spiritual power and claimed control of

Italy. Clement V and Philip IV (opposed to him as a rival of the Angevins) combined against him.

1316-1334. JOHN XXII, who supported the Angevins in Naples. His attempt to decide the validity of Emperor Louis IV's title led to a long struggle (1323-1347). Louis was supported by the German people, who resented the Avignonese papacy, and by the Franciscans. John was unable to return to Italy because of the continued anarchy.

1334-1342. Benedict XII, and

1342-1352. CLEMENT VI, whose pontificate was marked by the

1347. REVOLUTION OF COLA DI RIENZI at Rome. With the support of the populace, Cola overthrew the rule of the patricians, set himself up as tribune of the people and summoned an Italian national parliament. Expelled by his opponents (1348), he returned in 1352 and was appointed senator by the pope (1354), but was in the same year slain by his baronial opponents. The lords of the Papal States resumed control and were, to all intents and purposes, independent of papal authority.

1352-1362. INNOCENT VI. He sent the Spanish cardinal, Albornoz, to Italy and the latter succeeded in reducing the powerful barons to obedience, thus making possible an eventual return of the pope.

REFORM OF THE CURIA during the Avignon period. General work of centralization and departmentalization (1) the *camera apostolica*, (2) the chancery, (3) justice; (4) the penitentiary (punishments and dispensations). Centralization put important clerical appointments throughout Europe under direct papal control through an extraordinary extension of the papal rights of reservation and provision made a virtual end of local elections, filled ecclesiastical offices with aliens and strangers, and outraged public opinion everywhere. A parallel reorganization and departmentalization of the papal financial administration led to a new efficiency in the levy and collection of papal taxes, fees, etc., which bore hard on the clergy, and drained large sums from the national states, stirring public opinion still further, especially in England. Significant items of the budget of John XXII war, 63.7%, upkeep and entertainment, 12.7%, alms, 7.16%; 0.4% stables; 0.33% art; library. 0.17%.

Vying with the growing magnificence of the monarchies of Europe, the Avignonese popes and cardinals became proverbial for their pomp and luxury and these tendencies

Italy in the 15th Century



spread to the episcopate despite the thunders of the Franciscans and the decrees of local synods. The insubordination of outraged reformers like the Fraticelli, the Bohemian preachers, and Wiclif soon penetrated to the masses.

Virtually every pope (notably Clement V and John XXII) made serious and honest efforts to combat these alarming developments, but the general anarchy in Europe made success impossible. There was a notable expansion of missions to the Far East. China (an archbishop and ten suffragans, 1312, fifty Franciscan houses, 1314; missions to Persia). Rome, the ancient spiritual center of the west, was reduced to an anarchic, poverty-stricken, provincial city, and clamored for the return of the popes. Petrarch's extreme denunciations of the Avignonese popes had little justification.

1362-1370. URBAN V. Return to Rome with the co-operation of Emperor Charles IV, the city a dismal ruin; return to Avignon on the entreaties of the cardinals (a majority of whom were French).

1370-1378. GREGORY XI visited Rome and died before he could leave. The conclave, under threat of personal violence from the Roman mob, yielded to demands for an Italian pope electing

1378-1389. URBAN VI, a blunt, avaricious man who alienated the cardinals by announcing that his reform of the Church would begin with the Sacred College.

1378-1417 THE GREAT SCHISM. the papacy divided and dishonored. Thirteen cardinals, meeting at Anagni, elected

1378-1394. CLEMENT VII, thus dividing western Christendom into obediences

The Roman Line	The Avignonese Line
Urban VI	Clement VII
(1378-1389)	(1378-1394)
Boniface IX	Benedict XIII
(1389-1404)	(1394-1423)
Innocent VII	
(1404-1406)	
Gregory XII	
(1406-1415)	

Alliance to the rivals was determined partly by practical considerations, but often was settled after careful study of the claims of each and consultation with the clergy (e.g. King Charles V of France, John of Castile); England's decision was based largely on hostility to France. Scotland's on its hostility to England. In Naples and

Sicily the rulers and their subjects took opposite positions.

EMERGENCE OF THE CONCILIAR MOVEMENT: The basic ideas were inherent in such writers as Marsiglio of Padua; specific arguments that a general council is superior to a pope, can be called by a king, and is competent to judge a pope or call a new conclave, were advanced in 1379 (Henry of Langenstein) and from then on grew in importance. King Charles VI of France (influenced by the University of Paris) called a national synod (1395), which voted overwhelmingly to urge the resignation of both popes. The Avignonese cardinals approved with only one negative, the popes refused to resign. The French clergy voted (1398) to withhold papal taxes and dues, and were endorsed by the king. Benedict's cardinals deserted him in panic and he fled, producing a reaction of public opinion against the king of France. Two Roman popes were elected with the understanding that they would resign if Benedict XIII would do so. The two colleges of cardinals joined in a call for a general council to meet at Pisa, 1409.

1409. THE COUNCIL OF PISA: attended by 500 prelates and delegates from the states of Europe. Two parties (1) a moderate majority with the sole aim of ending the schism, (2) radical reformers (including d'Ailly and Gerson from Paris), who were compelled to accept postponement of reform to a council supposed to meet in 1412. After hearing specific charges against both popes, the council deposed both. The conclave chose Alexander V (d. 1410) and then the ecclesiastical *condottiere*, Cardinal Baldassare Cossa, a man without spiritual qualities. Neither the Roman nor the Avignonese pope resigned, and the schism was a triple one.

1410-1415. JOHN XXIII, expelled from Rome by Ladislas of Naples, was forced by the Emperor Sigismund to issue a call for the Council of Constance (1414) in return for protection. This marked the passing of the initiative in reform from the King of France to the Roman Emperor, a return in theory to the days of the Ottos.

1414-1417. THE COUNCIL OF CONSTANCE: one of the greatest assemblies of mediaeval history, three aims (1) restoration of unity to the Church; (2) reform in head and members, (3) extirpation of heresy, particularly the Hussite heresy (p. 305). Following university practice, voting was by nations and the numbers of the Italian prelates did no good to Pope John. John, seeing a chance to dissolve the council and the emperor allowed

the imprisonment of Hus (in violation of the imperial safe-conduct)

Hus, heard three times by the whole council (and cleverly induced to expand his doctrine that sin vituates a clerical office to include civil office as well), lost Sigismund's support, was condemned and executed (1415) as was his companion, Jerome of Prague (1416)

John XXIII, having agreed to resign if his rivals did so, fled the council, was brought back, tried, and deposed (1415); Gregory XII resigned (1415), Sigismund, unable to induce Benedict XIII to resign, won away his supporters, and isolated him. Reform was again postponed, but two decrees are significant: *Sacrosancta* (1415), asserting that a council is superior to a pope; and *Frequens* (1417) providing for stated meetings of general councils

The concave elected Cardinal Colonna as Martin V. Christendom ignored the obstinate Benedict, and the schism was over

1417-1431. MARTIN V (Colonna), a Roman of Romans, declared it impious to appeal to a general council against a pope and dissolved the Council of Constance. Evasion of general reform and the threat of general councils supported by powerful monarchs, through the negotiation of concordats with the heads of states (i.e. by dealing with the bishops through lay rulers, a complete negation of the theory of a universal papal absolutism, and a virtual recognition of national churches) **Recovery of the Papal States:** most of the cities were under their own lords who bore *pro forma* titles as papal vicars but were in fact independent. Concentration on Italian political problems at the expense of the universal spiritual interests of Christendom

1431-1447. EUGENIUS IV, an obstinate Venetian who favored summoning the Council of Basel

1431-1449. THE COUNCIL OF BASEL, dominated by strong anti-papal feeling. Dissolved by Eugenius because of negotiations with the Hussites, the council ignored the order and decreed (with the support of the princes) that no general council can be dissolved without its consent, continued in session, and summoned Eugenius and the cardinals to attend. Eugenius ignored the summons, but was forced (1433) to accept the council. Temporary compromise with the Hussites registered in the *Compactata*. Reforms voted: abolition of commendations, reservations, appeals to Rome, annates, etc.; provision for regular provincial and diocesan synods confirmation of the right of chapter to ap-

peal from a general council to a pope pronounced heresy. Already divided over these reforms, the council split over reunion with the Greek Church. Eugenius and his cardinals ignored a second summons, were pronounced contumacious, Eugenius dissolved the council and called another to meet at Ferrara, the papalists left Basel. The rump council continued to meet, deposed Eugenius (1439), elected Amadeus of Savoy,

1440-1449. FELIX V, because he could pay his own way. Moved to Lausanne, the council continued with dwindling numbers and prestige

1438-1445. THE COUNCIL OF FERRARA-FLORENCE (under the presidency of Eugenius) After months of futile discussion (over the *filioque* question, unleavened bread at the sacrament, purgatory, and papal supremacy), the Greeks were forced to accept the Roman formula for union (1439) and the schism between east and west, dating from 1054, was technically healed. As the Greeks at home repudiated the union, it was of no effect. Isidore of Kiev and Bessarion remained as cardinals of the Roman Church

1438. A French national synod and King Charles VII accepted the *Pragmatic Sanction of Bourges* embodying most of the anti-papal decrees of the Council of Basel (basis for the Gallican Liberties). The *Pragmatic* checked the drain of money from France to the papacy

1439. The Diet of Mainz accepted the *Pragmatic Sanction of Mainz*, abolishing annates, papal reservations, provisions, and providing for diocesan and provincial synods.

Aeneas Sylvius Piccolomini, sent to win Germany back for the papacy, came to an agreement with Emperor Frederick III on such cynical terms that the German princes flocked to Felix V, but a provisional concordat, embodying the *Pragmatic* of 1439 enabled Aeneas Sylvius to detach the princes one by one.

1448. Concordat of Vienna, Eugenius' greatest triumph, accepted the supremacy of a general council, but restored the annates and abandoned most of the restrictions on papal patronage

1449. Dissolution of the Council of Basel: abdication of Felix V (who became a cardinal). Papal celebration of the triumph over the conciliar movement in the Jubilee of 1450. Postponement of moderate reform made the radical Reformation of the 16th century inevitable

1447-1455. NICHOLAS V former-librarian of the Vatican, de Medici scholar

humanist, collector of manuscripts, founder of the Vatican Library. Rome temporarily a center of humanism. Nicholas' circle included Poggio Bracciolini, Alberti, and Lorenzo Valla (a scientific humanist and critic who had just demolished the *Donation of Constantine* as a forgery). Plans for a new St Peter's

1453. The Turkish capture of Constantinople (p. 327) ended the Greek Empire of the East and removed all serious rivalry by the patriarch to the position of the Roman pope.

1455-1468 CALIXTUS III (an Aragonese), an aged invalid, anti-humanist, energetic supporter of war against the Turk, an ardent nepotist (three Borgia nephews, one of them later Pope Alexander VI)

1458-1464. PIUS II (Aeneas Sylvius Piccolomini) In his youth a gay dog, in later life austere, most brilliant and versatile of the literary popes, a humanist, lover of nature, eloquent essayist, orator, and Latin stylist. A short, bent man with smiling eyes, a fringe of white hair, seldom free of pain, a tireless worker, always accessible. Advocate of papal supremacy, obstinate foe of conciliar reform. His appeals for a crusade ignored by a preoccupied Europe, he gallantly took the Cross himself to shame the princes of Christendom, and died at Ancona. His family was large and poor and he was a nepotist

1467-1471. PAUL II, a Venetian, rich, kindly, handsome, a collector of jewels and carvings, founder of the Corso horse-races. A strong centralizer, supporter of the Hungarian crusade. The Turkish victory at Negropotone (1470) gave the Turks mastery of Levantine waters

1471-1484. SIXTUS IV (della Rovere) aimed to consolidate the Papal States and reduce the power of the cardinals; methodical nepotist (three nephews, the Riarios, one of them later Pope Julius II)

1475. Rapprochement with Ferrante of Naples, alienation of the Medici who were replaced as papal bankers by the Pazzi. The Riarios organized with Sixtus' knowledge, if not approval, the Pazzi Conspiracy (assassination of Giuliano de' Medici, 1478). This destroyed the alliance of Florence, Naples, Milan, to maintain the Italian balance of power and led to a war involving most of Italy, the war was terminated by the capture of Otranto (1480) and by the diplomacy of Lorenzo de' Medici. Sixtus' coalition with Venice led to the Ferrarese War (1482-1484). Sixtus and Julius II were the great beautifiers of Rome

Sistine Chapel (c. 1473), paving and widening of streets and squares, patronage of Ghirlandajo, Botticelli, Perugino, Pinturicchio, *et al.*

1484-1492. INNOCENT VIII, a kindly, handsome Genoese, a compromise capher, the first pope to recognize his children and to dine publicly with ladies. A baronial revolt (1485-1487) in Naples (supported by Innocent and, *secretly*, by Venice) led to a revival of the Angevin claims to Naples, Florence and Milan, tearing French intervention in Italy, opposed the war, and peace and amnesty were arranged. Ferrante's cynical violation of the amnesty led the exiles (on Ludovico Sforza's advice) to call in King Charles VIII of France. Sforza struck an alliance with Charles to protect Milan and opened the road into Italy to this alien invader (1494). Italy was not again to know full independence from foreign domination until the end of the 19th century

Girolamo Savonarola (1453-1498) a Dominican, Prior of San Marco in Florence (1491), eloquent reforming preacher and precursor of the Reformation was already denouncing the new paganism of the Renaissance, the corruption of the state and the papacy, and foretelling the ruin of Italy. (Cont p 395)

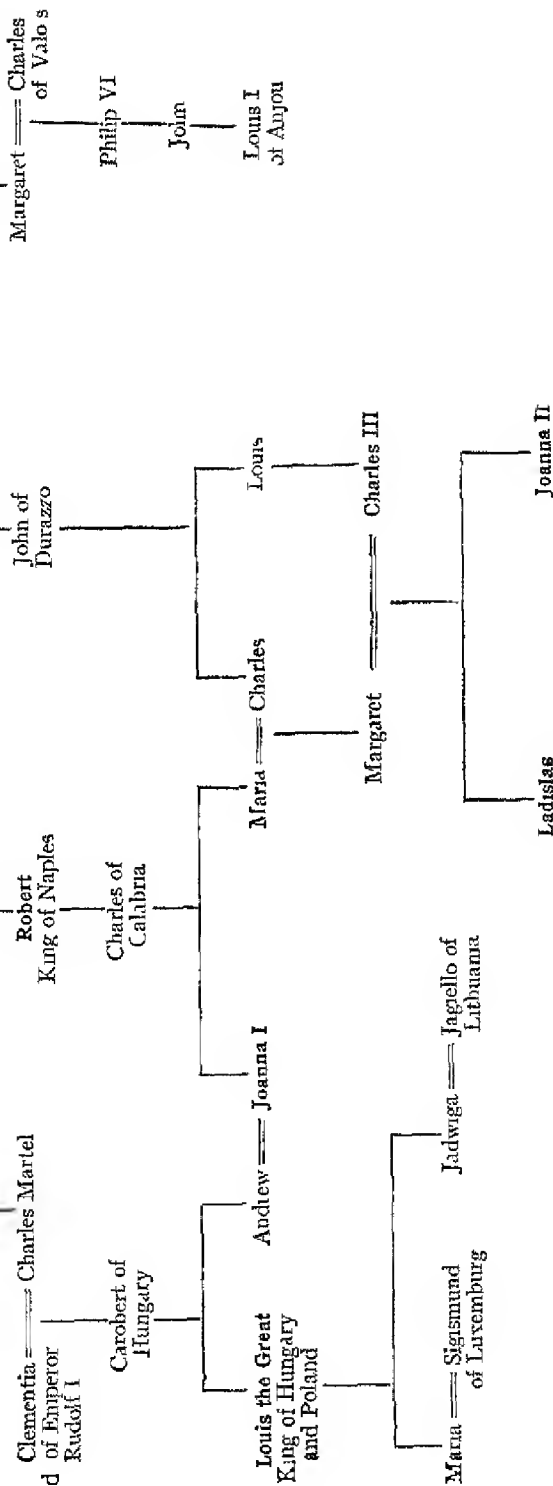
(2) Sicily and Naples, 1268-1494

1268-1285. CHARLES I, (Angevin) King of Naples and of Sicily (1268-1282). His grandiose scheme for the creation of a Mediterranean empire in succession to the Byzantine (a revival of the Latin Empire under French auspices) was frustrated by the Sicilian Vespers (1282) and the war in Sicily which continued until 1302. Sicily maintained its independence and offered the crown to Peter III of Aragon (husband of Constance, heiress of the Hohenstaufen), an ally of Constantinople against Charles. Peter accepted the offer (1282), ejected the Angevins and established the house of Aragon on the throne

1282- SICILY UNDER ARAGONESE RULE Peter (1282-1285), James (1285-1295) James exchanged the investiture of Sardinia and Corsica for that of Sicily, and Sicily passed to his brother, Frederick (1295-1337). Frederick brought to a close the war with Naples (Peace of Caltabellotta, 1302), marrying the daughter of Charles I and accepting the stipulation that the Sicilian crown should pass to the Angevins on his death. This agreement was not fulfilled, with the result that the struggle continued until, in 37 Joanna of

Charles I of Anjou = Beatrice, heiress
of Provence

Charles II = Mary, d. of
Stephen of Hungary



Naples abandoned Sicily to the Aragonese in return for tribute. Sicily was ruled as a viceroyalty until the reunion with Aragon in 1409.

1285-1309. Charles II (Angevin) of Naples

1309-1343. Robert (Angevin) of Naples. He was the leader of the Italian Guelphs and, having been appointed imperial vicar on the death of Emperor Henry VII, planned to create an Italian kingdom.

1343-1382. Joanna I, Queen of Naples.

1382-1386. Charles III, a grandnephew of Robert

1386-1414. Ladislas, son of Charles III, finally succeeded in establishing some measure of order in the kingdom and began a vigorous campaign of expansion in central Italy. In 1409 he bought the States of the Church from Pope Gregory XII, but his designs were blocked by Florence and Siena.

1415-1435. JOANNA II, sister of Ladislas.

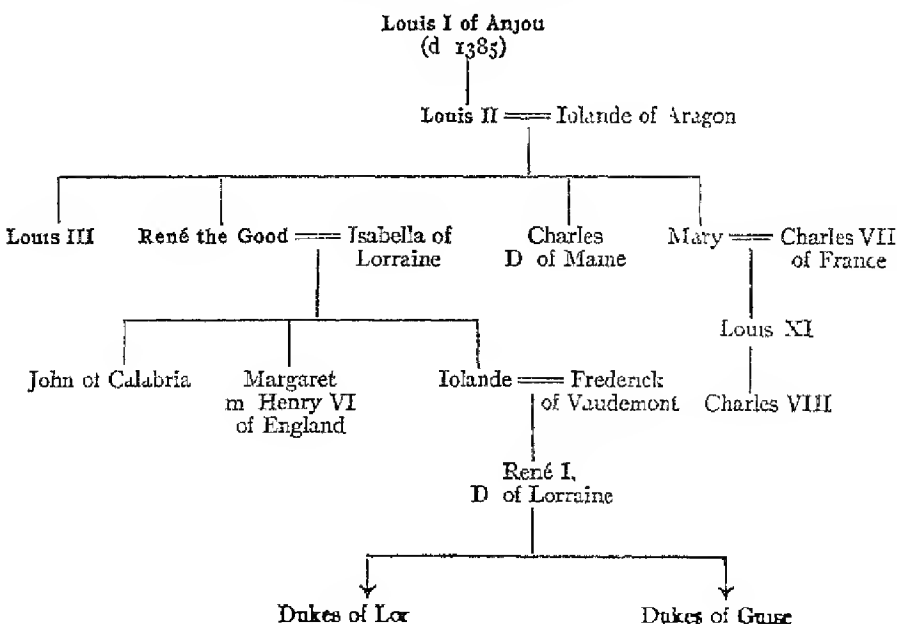
The amazing intrigues of this amorous widow with her favorites, successors designate, and rival claimants to the throne kept Italian diplomacy in a turmoil, and culminated in a struggle between René, the Angevin claimant (supported by the pope), and Alfonso V of Aragon (supported by Filippo Maria Visconti). This conflict ended in the triumph

of Alfonso, who secured Naples in 1435 and was recognized as king by the pope in 1442.

1435-1458. ALFONSO (*the Magnanimous*) reunited the crowns of Naples and Sicily and made Naples the center of his Aragonese Mediterranean empire (p. 284). He supported Filippo Maria Visconti of Milan, who apparently willed his duchy to him on his death. Alfonso avoided arousing Italy by claiming the duchy, but Ferdinand of Aragon later revived the claim. Alfonso's pressure drove Genoa into the arms of France. Loyal to the pope, Alfonso supported Eugenius IV against Francesco Sforza. He centralized the administration, reformed taxation, and arranged a series of dynastic marriages in Italy. But he failed to subdue his barons entirely. He preferred Italy to Aragon, was a passionate *dévoté* of Italian culture and acted as a Renaissance Mæcenas, the patron of Lorenzo Valla. The Academy of Naples was composed mostly of poets. Alfonso divided his domain, Aragon and Sicily passing to his brother, John, and Naples (correctly called the Kingdom of Sicily) going to his illegitimate son.

1458-1494. FERRANTE (Ferdinand I), one of the most notoriously unscrupulous Renaissance princes. He triumphed in his struggle for the succession

The Neapolitan Anjou



with the aid of Francesco Sforza and Cosimo de' Medici (who was alarmed at the presence of the French in Genoa) Ferrante generally supported the triple Italian alliance (p. 295) except for the period 1478-1480. Pope Innocent V, angered at Ferrante's suspension of tribute, supported the Angevin pretender, and Ferrante made a hollow peace until he could crush a baronial revolt. Then, supported by the Colonna and Orsini in Rome, he turned on Innocent, who was saved only by Lorenzo de' Medici. Innocent (1492) guaranteed the succession in Naples. Alexander VI stood by the bargain, and opposed Charles VIII's demand for investiture.

THE CLAIMS OF THE VALOIS KINGS TO NAPLES. Based on (1) the marriage of Margaret (daughter of Charles II of Naples) and Charles of Valois, the parents of King Philip VI; and on (2) the claims of the so-called "second" house of Anjou founded by Duke Louis I (d. 1385) of Anjou, Count of Provence. Louis was grandson of Philip VI, and grandfather of (1) Mary, wife of Charles VII of France, mother of Louis XI and of (2) Duke Louis III (d. 1434) and his brother René of Lorraine (d. 1486). (Cont p. 398)

(3) Florence, to 1492

EARLY HISTORY The Margraviate of Tuscany, set up by the Carolingians, extended from the Po to the Roman state under the Margrave Boniface (d. 1052) whose daughter, the great Countess Matilda (1052-1115), was probably the strongest papal supporter in Italy. Associated with her in the government was a council of *boni homines*, whose administration during her frequent absences, and after her death, laid the foundation for the emergence of the commune. Florence, already a great commercial center, opposed the Ghibelline hill barons, who preyed on her commerce. The burghers continued Guelph in sympathy, trade and financial connections with France made them Francophil and friendly to Charles of Anjou. Under Matilda the guild organization emerged, which came to form the basis of the city government. Control of the government was concentrated in the hands of the great guilds (one of which included the bankers). Consuls appeared after 1138. The populace was divided into two great groups, the *grandi* (nobles) and the *arti* (guilds). Consuls were chosen by the *grandi*.

On the breakup of the margraviate following Matilda's death, Florence began her advance, and by 1176 was master of the *dioceses* of Florence and Fiesole. The in-

stitution of the *poderate* after 1202 was favored by the feudal elements and the lesser guilds. Intermittent rivalry of the noble houses continued. Wars were fought with Pisa, Lucca, Pistoia, Siena. Under the *poderate* the commune developed a strong organization paralleled by the growth of the *popolo* under its *capitano*.

The great struggle of Guelph and Ghibelline was reflected in Florentine civil strife. After a Guelph régime, Frederick of Antioch (son of Frederick II) as imperial vicar instituted the first mass expulsion in Florentine history by driving out the Guelphs (1249).

1252. The first gold florin was coined, and soon became the standard gold coin in Europe.

1260. Siena, with the aid of Manfred and the Florentine Ghibellines, inflicted a great defeat on the Florentine Guelphs (Montaperti), beginning a Ghibelline dominance which lasted until Manfred's death (1266). This was followed by a reaction, and the expulsion of the Ghibellines. Under the Ghibelline régime the *popolo* lost all share in the government.

In the reaction following the Ghibelline régime, Ghibelline property was confiscated to support persecution of the Ghibellines. Under Charles of Anjou the formulae of the old constitution were restored, the party struggle continued. The Sicilian Vespers (1282) weakened Charles, strengthened the commune, and the Florentine "republic" became in effect a commercial oligarchy in the hands of the greater guilds.

1282. By the Law of 1282 nobles could participate in the government only by joining a guild. The last traces of serfdom were abolished (1289) and the number of guilds increased to 21 (7 greater 14 lesser).

1293. The Ordinance of 1293 excluded from the guilds anyone not actively practicing his profession, and thus in effect removed the nobles from all share in the government.

Two factions arose, the Blacks (*Neri*), extreme Guelphs led by Corso Donati, the Whites (*Bianchi*), moderate Guelphs (and later Ghibellines) under Vieri Cerchi. The Neri favored repeal of the Ordinance of 1293.

Emperor Henry VII was unable to capture Florence, but

1320-1323. Castruccio Castracani, Lord of Lucca, humiliated the city in the field. Growing financial troubles, partly the result of Edward III's repudiation of his debts to the Florentine bankers, culminated in the failures of the Peruzzi (1343).

and Bardi (1344) and damaged Florentine banking prestige. The government was discredited and civil war ensued. Walter of Brienne (Duke of Athens) was called in, reformed the government, began a usurpation, and was expelled (1343). The restored commune was under the domination of the business men who had three objectives: access to the sea (hence hostility to Pisa), expansion in Tuscany (to dominate the trade roads), and support of the popes (to retain papal banking business). Social conflict continued and grew as the oligarchy gained power and the Guelts opposed the increasing industrial proletariat. The lesser guilds were pushed into the background; the ungilded were worse off. The first social revolt came in 1345.

1347-1348. Famine followed by the Black Death reduced the population seriously, but recovery was rapid.

1351. The commutation of military service for cash marked the decline of citizen militia and the golden age of the *condottieri*. War with Milan resulted (1351) from Giovanni Visconti's attempt to reduce Florence and master Tuscany.

1375-1378. Papal efforts to annex Tuscany led Florence into a temporary alliance with Milan.

1378. Continued pressure by Guelft extremists to exclude the lesser guilds, led to a series of violent explosions. Salvestro de' Medici, Gonfalonier, ended the *admonizioni* which were the basis of the Guelft terrorism, and a violent revolt of the *ciompi* (the poorest workmen) broke out. The *ciompi* made temporary gains, but Salvestro was exiled, and by 1382 the oligarchy was back in the saddle and even *admonizioni* were revived.

FLORENTINE CULTURE. Precursors of the Renaissance. (1) Dante (1265-1321). *Vita Nuova*, in the Tuscan vernacular, the *Divine Comedy*, a brilliant poetic synthesis of mediaeval ideas and culture which established Tuscan as the literary vernacular of Italy. *Di Vulgari Eloquentia*, a defense of the vernacular, written in Latin. Petrarch (1304-1374), of Florentine origin, greatest of Italian lyricists, brilliant Latinist, the first great humanist; he never mastered Greek. Interested in every aspect of humanity, a lover of nature, a universal mind. Boccaccio (1313-1375), friend of Petrarch, knew both Greek and Latin, the first modern student of Tacitus, collector of classical manuscripts, first lecturer on Dante (1373). His *Decameron*, an epitome of bourgeois sophistication. Founder of Italian prose. Giotto (1276-1337), architect (employed on the cathedral), sculptor, painter, revealing Renaissance tendencies

Villani (d. 1348), *Chronicle* with clear bourgeois elements. Chrysoloras (called from Constantinople), the first public lecturer on Greek in the west (1390-1400); he had many famous humanists as pupils.

1382-1432. A half-century of oligarchic domination in Florentine politics, in many ways the zenith of Florentine power. Constitutional reform (1382) broadened popular participation in government, but nothing much was done for the *ciompi*, and sporadic revolts continued as the Guelts slowly regained power.

1393. Maso degli Albizzi's long control of the government began with the exile or disenfranchisement of the Alberti and their supporters. Capitalism had destroyed the guild organization as a vital political force, and Albizzi ruled for the advantage of his own house and the *Arte della Lana* (wool) with which he was associated. Democratic elements in the state had vanished.

1397-1398. Florence resisted the Visconti advance into Tuscany.

1405. Pisa was bought and reduced to obedience (1405), giving Florence direct access to the sea. Leghorn was purchased (1421) and the *Consuls of the Sea* established. Filippo Maria Visconti's drive into Tuscany led Florence to declare war. The peace party was led by Giovanni de' Medici, a wool dealer and international banker, probably Italy's richest man. Several defeats of Florence were accompanied by a decline of Florentine credit and a number of serious bankruptcies. Alliance with Venice and defeat of the Visconti, who accepted peace on onerous terms (1429), Venice monopolized the gains of the war.

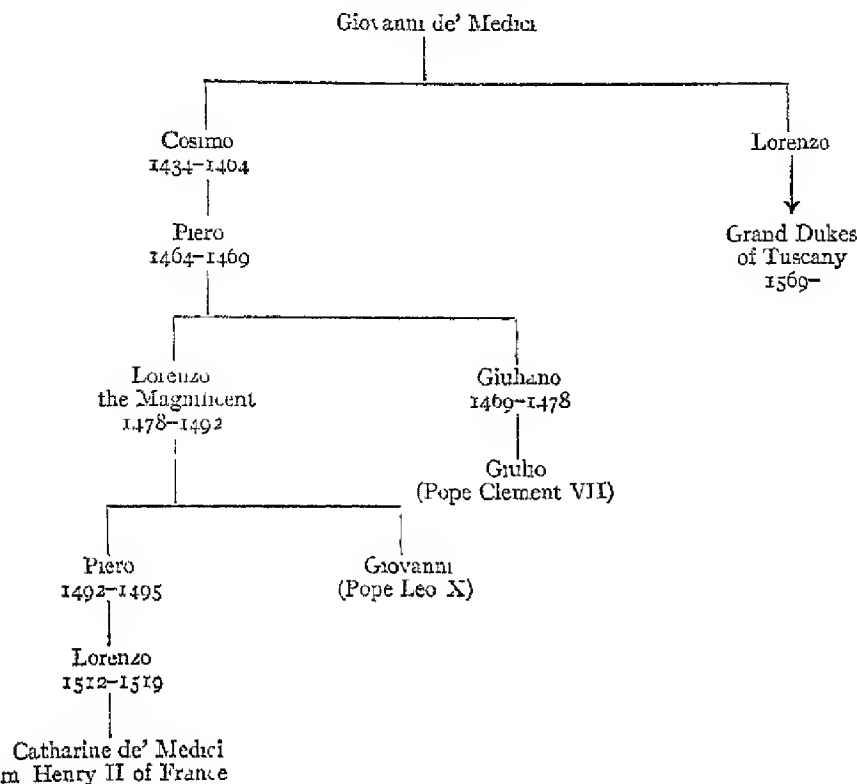
1427. Taxation reform, the *calasso*, an income tax intended to be of general and democratic incidence, supported (?) by the Medici.

1433. The fiasco of the war on Lucca (1429-1433) led to Cosimo (son of Giovanni) de' Medici's imprisonment as a scapegoat, and his sentence to ten-year exile. The next election to the Signory favored the Medici, and Cosimo was recalled (1434). Rinaldo degli Albizzi, Rodolfo Peruzzi *et al.*, were in turn exiled, and the Medici dominance in Florence began, opening three centuries of close identity between the fortunes of the family and those of Florence. Cosimo, without holding office, dominated the government, determining who should hold office.

1434-1494. DOMINATION OF THE MEDICI

1434-1464. COSIMO (Pater Patriae)

The Medici Family



1440. Florence and Venice in alliance defeated Filippo Maria Visconti at Anghiari. The *castello* was replaced by a progressive income tax designed to lighten the burdens of the poor (i.e. the Medici adherents). Cosimo supported Francesco Sforza's contest for the Duchy of Milan and aided him in his war with Venice. For commercial reasons he favored France, but backed Ferrante of Naples against the Angevin claims. He was thus the real creator of the triple alliance of Florence, Milan, and Naples in the interest of the Italian equilibrium and security.

1464-1469 Piero the Gouty, son of Cosimo a semi-invalid who was opposed by Luca Pitti.

1469-1478 Lorenzo and Giuliano de' Medici, and

1478-1492 **LORENZO DE' MEDICI** (*the Magnificent*) alone. Lorenzo continued the general policy of Cosimo. He enjoyed the power and prestige of a prince, though he had neither the title nor the office. His marriage to Catherine

Orsini was the first princely marriage of the Medici.

1471. Lorenzo's effort to conciliate Pope Sixtus IV netted him a confirmation of the Medici banking privileges and the appointment as receiver of the papal revenues.

1474. Pope Sixtus and Ferrante of Naples were asked to join the alliance of Florence, Venice, and Milan (concluded in 1474), but Ferrante, feeling isolated, and Sixtus, angered at Lorenzo's opposition to his nephews, the Riarios, drew together. Italy became divided into two camps. The Pazzi family, rivals of the Medici, were given the lucrative position as receivers of the papal revenues.

1478. **The Pazzi Plot.** The Riarios (apparently not without Sixtus' knowledge), plotted to have Lorenzo and Giuliano assassinated in the cathedral at Easter mass. Giuliano was killed, Lorenzo wounded. The Medici almost exterminated the Pazzi and hounded the fugitives all over Italy. Sixtus had an interdict on

Florence excommunicated Lorenzo. Alfonso of Calabria invaded Tuscany. Venice and Milan stood by Florence. Louis XI sent Commynes as his representative. Ferrante engineered a Milanese revolt. The Turks diverted Venice at Scutari, plague broke out. Desperate, Lorenzo visited Ferrante (the cruellest and most cynical despot in Italy) and by his charm and the threat of a revival of Angevin claims, arranged (1480) a peace. Florence suffered considerable losses, but Lorenzo was a popular hero and succeeded in establishing the *Council of Seventy*, a completely Medici organ, the instrument of *de facto* despotism, but a source of real stability in government.

Lorenzo's brilliant foreign policy was costly; he had neglected the family business, and apparently used some of the state money for Medici purposes; he also debased the coinage. Florentine prosperity, under the pressure of rivals, heavy taxation, and business depression, was declining. Nonetheless, Lorenzo, the leading statesman of his day, brought a twelve-year calm before the storm to Italy, resuming the Medici alliance with Naples and Milan to balance the papacy and Venice, and to keep a united front against alien invasion. Florence, on good terms with Charles VIII, regained most of her Tuscan losses. Savonarola, Prior of San Marco (1491), had already begun his denunciations of Florentine corruption and his attacks on Lorenzo (p. 290).

1492. PIERO succeeded Lorenzo on his death. Son of an Orsini mother, married to an Orsini, he supported Naples, angered Florence, and threw Ludovico Sforza into alliance with the Neapolitan exiles who summoned Charles VIII.

1494. Charles' invasion began the age-long subjugation of Italy to alien invaders who dominated the national evolution until 1870. Piero, alarmed at public opinion, fled the city.

Florence, center of the Italian Renaissance. For over a century the Medici were the greatest patrons of the Renaissance and led the rich bourgeoisie of Florence in fostering the most brilliant development of culture since the days of Pericles. Cosimo was an enthusiastic patron of manuscript collectors, copyists, and humanists, established the library of San Marco and the Medici library. The Council of Ferraro-Florence sat in Florence (1439) and brought a number of learned Greeks who stimulated Platonic studies in Florence. Under Cosimo's auspices Ficino was trained to make his great translation of Plato (still ranked high) and the Platonic Academy was

founded. Lorenzo, a graceful poet (carnival songs, etc.), ardent champion of the vernacular, and lover of the countryside, a generous patron, drew about him a brilliant circle. He continued the support of Ficino. Florentine leadership in Renaissance (1) painting: Massaccio (1401-1429?), Botticelli (1444-1510), Leonardo da Vinci (1452-1519) (sculptor and polymath), (2) architecture: Brunelleschi (1377-1446), Alberti (1405-1471); (3) sculpture: Donatello (c. 1386-1466), Ghiberti (1370-1455), Verrocchio (1435-1488), Michelangelo (1475-1564) (also painter, poet, architect); (4) history and political theory: Machiavelli (1469-1527); Guicciardini (1485-1550) (5) romantic poetry: Pulci (1432-c. 1487) (Cont. p. 398)

(4) Milan, to 1500

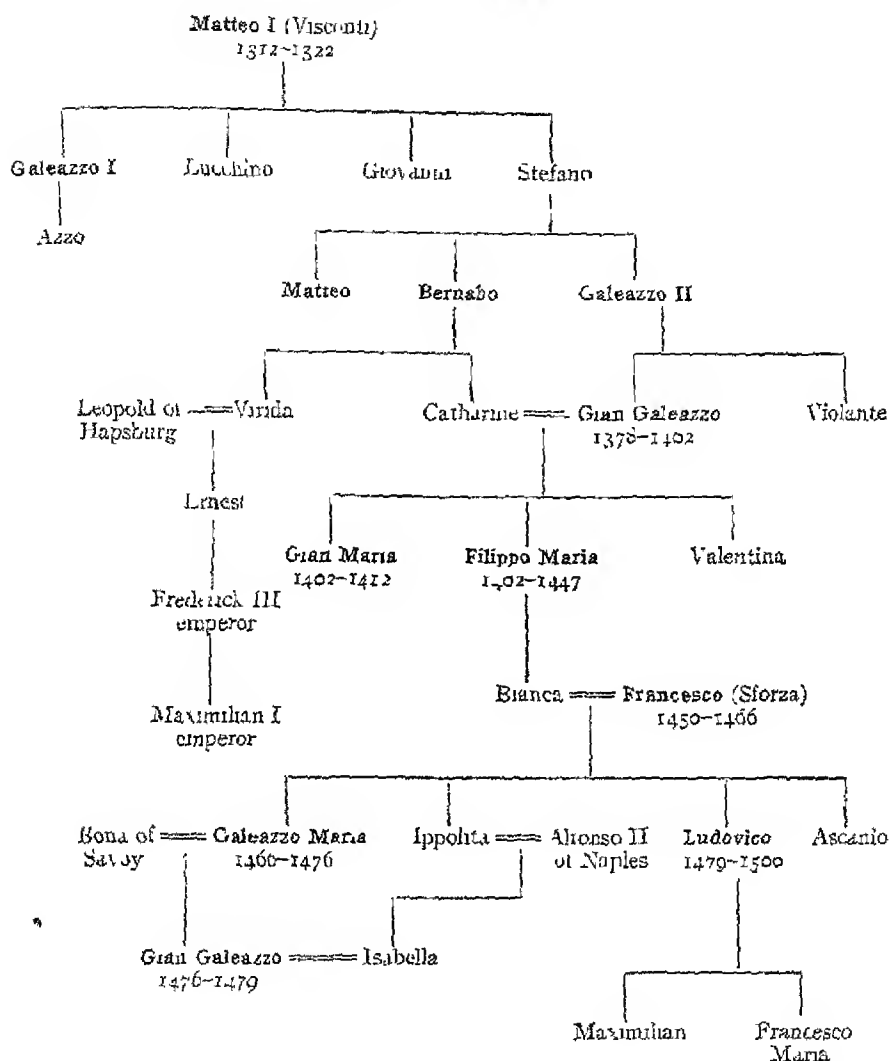
EARLY HISTORY. Milan, ancient center of the agriculture of the Lombard Plain, self-sufficient in food, master of important passes (Brenner, Splügen, St. Gotthard) of the Alps, was for a long time surpassed in wealth only by Venice.

Establishment of Pavia as the Lombard capital (569). Emergence of Milan as the center of Italian opposition in the Lombard Plain to alien and heretical domination. Rise of the archbishop as defender of native liberty and orthodoxy laid the basis for the evolution of archiepiscopal temporal power (military, administrative, judicial) exercised through his viscounts. The end of Lombard domination (774), followed by Carolingian destruction of the great Lombard fiefs, strengthened the episcopal power still further.

The spirit of municipal independence emerged from intense rivalries for the archiepiscopal see and the necessities of defense. Milan became an island of safety and justice in the Lombard Plain, a populous, self-sufficient, city-state. Under Archbishop Herbert (1018-1045) the *carroccio* (arc of municipal patriotism) was set up; expansion in the Lombard Plain began (reduction of Lodi, Como, Pavia). The moat was dug after Emperor Frederick I's destruction (1162), the city was rebuilt by its allies, Bergamo, Brescia, Mantua, and Verona (For the Lombard League and the wars with Frederick see p. 220). Rapid growth, extension of the walls (after 1183). Chief industry armor manufacturing and the wool trade; later silk manufacture, irrigation made the plain productive.

Government. (1) *Parlamento* (*consiglio grande*) (membership successively reduced

Rulers of Milan



to 2000, 1500, 800) (2) *Credenza*, a committee of twelve for urgent and secret business (3) *Consols* (the executive) elected for a year, responsible to the assembly

Rise of the Della Torre and the Visconti. Bitter warfare between populace and nobles led to the rise of two great families, the Della Torre (lords of the tower, i.e. castle) and the Visconti (i.e. the viscounts)

1237-1277. Rule of the (Gueli) DELLA TORRE. Martino established the

cutusta a tax of democratic and uniform incidence. The title *signore*, i.e. Lord of Milan, established (1259) defeat and capture of the (Ghibelline) Visconti and their adherents. Milan established her power over Bergamo, Lodi, Como, and Vercelli

1277-1447. Rule of the VISCONTI. Established by Archbishop Otto Visconti. Brief restoration of the Della Torre (1302) in a Gueli reaction with outside support. Establishment (1312) of the Visconti supremacy (Matteo designated

imperial vicar) Ruthless Visconti rule and expansion over northern Italy (including Genoa). Stefano's sons, Bernabo, Galeazzo, Matteo, divided the domains but ruled jointly until Matteo was assassinated (1354) by his brothers. Intolerably harsh joint rule of Bernabo (1354-1385) at Milan and Galeazzo (1354-1378) at Pavia; ostentatious patronage of learning and art.

1378-1402. GIAN GALEAZZO succeeded his father Galeazzo and did away with Bernabo (1385), thereafter ruling alone (1385-1402). Gian Galeazzo married Isabella, daughter of King John of France, one of his daughters married Lionel, son of Edward III of England, another, Valentina, married Louis of Orléans (the source of Louis XII's claims to Milan). Gian Galeazzo began the creation of a northern Italian kingdom: mastery of Verona, Vicenza, Padua (1386-1388), Tuscan advance blocked by Florence (1390-1392) and by the rebellion of Padua. Created hereditary duke (1395) by Emperor Wenceslaus, he added Pisa and Siena (1399), Assisi and Perugia (1400) to his domains, and routed (1401) Elector Rupert III (in Florentine pay). The *Certosa* and *Duomo* were begun. Gian Galeazzo's death (1402) saved Florence and opened a period of anarchy in Milan under his sons Gian Maria (1402-1412) and Filippo Maria (1402-1447), which undid much of their father's work.

1402-1447. FILIPPO MARIA, after the assassination (1412) of Gian Maria, regained Gian Galeazzo's lands (even Genoa). Venice joined Florence against Filippo and took Bergamo, Brescia (1425). Filippo, last of the Visconti, was followed by

1447-1450. The Republic and the supremacy of Francesco Sforza, the condottiere, son-in-law of Filippo, who fought his way to mastery, defeating Venice and conquering the Lombard Plain.

1450. Francesco Sforza was invested with the ducal title by popular acclaim.

1450-1500. Rule of the SFORZA. Francesco, eager for peace, came to terms with Cosimo de' Medici and Naples (the so-called triple alliance for the Italian balance of power). Louis XI was on intimate terms with Francesco and made him his political model. Francesco completed the *Certosa* and the *Duomo* with Florentine architects under Renaissance influence and began the *Castello*. Patron of the humanist Fililefo, Francesco gave his son Galeazzo and his daughter Ippolita a humanist education: Ippolita was famous for her Latin

style. His court as full of humanists and learned Greeks.

1466-1476. GALEAZZO MARIA SFORZA was assassinated after a cruel but able rule. His son

1476-1479. GIAN GALEAZZO, husband of Isabella of Naples under the regency of his mother, supported Florence against Naples after the Pazzi conspiracy (1478). Gian Galeazzo's uncle Ludovico usurped the duchy (1479).

1479-1500. LUDOVICO (*il Moro*) alarmed at his isolation after the death (1492) of Lorenzo de' Medici, supported the appeals of Neapolitan refugees to Charles VIII of France, whose expedition (1494) began the destruction of Italian independence. In Charles' train came Louis of Orléans, who, as Louis XII (1498-1515), added claims to Milan to his other Italian claims, took Milan (1499) and captured Ludovico (1500), who ended his days (1508) as prisoner of Louis.

Ludovico's generous patronage marked the golden age of the Renaissance in Milan. Ludovico, an artist, man of letters, economist, and experimenter, beautified the city, improved irrigation, bettered agriculture. He was the patron of Bramante and Leonardo. (Cont. p. 397)

(5) Venice, 1310-1489

In the early 14th century Venice already dominated the trade of the Adriatic and possessed many colonies throughout the Near East. Her position in the eastern trade was challenged primarily by Genoa, at that time at the height of her power.

1353-1355. War between Venice and Genoa. The Venetians were defeated at Sapienza (1354) and suffered the loss of their fleet. Peace was mediated by Milan.

1378-1381. THE WAR OF CHIOGGIA between Venice and Genoa. This grew out of the grant, by John V Palaeologos, of the island of Tenedos, key to the Dardanelles. Luciano Doria, the Genoese admiral, defeated the Venetians at Pola, seized Chioggia and blockaded Venice. The Venetians, under Vittorio Pisano, blocked the channel and starved out the fleet of Pietro Doria, forcing its surrender. From this blow Genoa never recovered. Henceforth Venice was mistress of the Levantine trade, which made an outlet for her goods over the Alpine passes more urgent than ever. The war with Genoa had demonstrated the importance of a mainland food supply and thereby inaugurated an inland advance which had a decisive influence on Italian politics. Venice had already taken

Padua from the Scaligers of Verona (1339), but by agreement had turned it over to the Carrara family. Treviso and Belluna, however, were retained.

1388. Treaty of the Venetians with the Ottoman Turks, the first effort to assure trade privileges despite the rise of the Turkish power.

1405. Venice seized Padua, Bassano, Vicenza, and Verona after the breakup of the Visconti domains (1402) and the defeat of the Carrara family.

1416. First war of Venice against the Ottoman Turks, the result of Turkish activity in the Aegean. The Doge Loredano won a resounding victory at the Dardanelles and forced the sultan to conclude peace.

1423. The Venetians took over Saloniki as part of a plan of co-operation with the Greek emperor against the Turks.

1425-1430. Second war against the Turks. The Turkish fleets ravaged the Aegean stations of the Venetians and took Saloniki (1430). The Venetians were obliged to make peace in view of

1426-1429. The war with Filippo Maria of Milan, by which the Venetians established a permanent hold over Verona and Vicenza, and gained in addition Brescia (1426), Bergamo (1428), and Crema (1429).

1453. Participation of the Venetians in the defense of Constantinople against Mohammed II (p. 377). After the capture of Constantinople, Mohammed proceeded to the conquest of Greece and Albania, thus isolating and endangering the Venetian stations.

1463-1479. THE GREAT WAR AGAINST THE TURKS. Negroponte was lost (1470). The Turks throughout maintained the upper hand and at times raided to the very outskirts of Venice. By the Treaty of Constantinople (1479) the Venetians gave up Scutari and other Albanian stations, as well as Negroponte and Lemnos. Thenceforth the Venetians paid an annual tribute for permission to trade in the Black Sea.

1482-1484. War with Ferrara, as a result of which Venice acquired Rovigo. This marked the limit of Venetian expansion on the mainland. The frontiers remained substantially unaltered until the days of Napoleon.

1489. Acquisition of Cyprus (partly by gift, partly by extortion), from Catharine Cornaro, widow of James of Lusignan.

Venetian culture in the Renaissance. Preoccupied with her commercial empire, her expansion on the mainland, and the advance of the Turk, Venice, despite her wealth, unique domestic security, and the sophistication of wide travel, long stood aside from the main currents of the early Renaissance. Her architecture remained under Gothic and Byzantine influences until the end of the 15th century, and the Palazzo Vendramini (1481) is perhaps the first important example of the new style. The Bellinis (Jacopo, 1395-1470, and his two sons) were the most notable early Venetian painters and there was little promise of the brilliant if late achievement of the 16th century. The printing press apparently appealed to the practical Venetian nature and the Senate decreed (1469) that the art should be fostered. Much of the finest early printing issued from the Venetian presses of the 15th and 16th centuries. (Cont. p. 397)

e. THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE

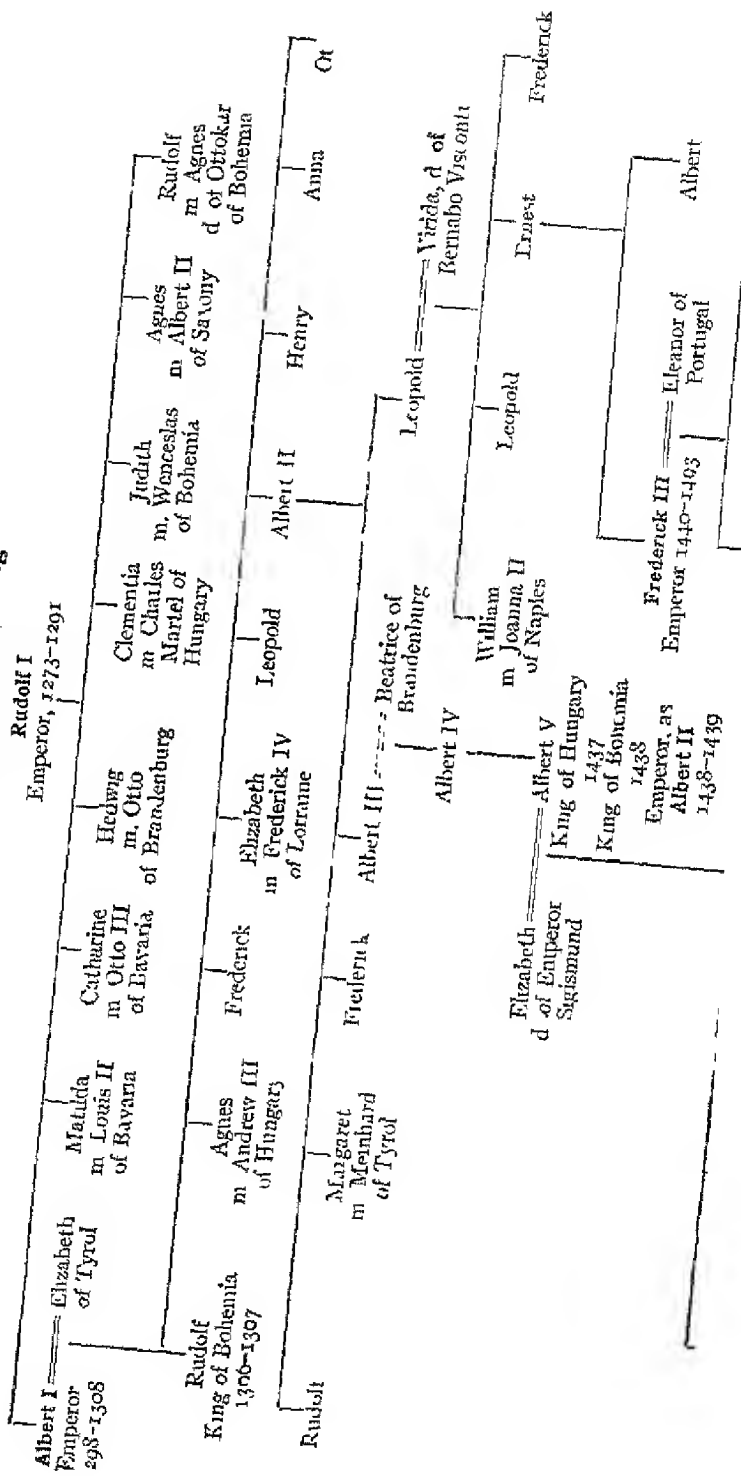
1273. The election fell to Rudolf of Hapsburg (b. 1218), who ranked as a prince, wished to restore and retain in his family the Duchy of Swabia, and had three daughters to marry off. The Hapsburgs (from *Habsch-Burg*, Hawk-Castle) originally (10th century) of the district of Brugg (junction of the Aar and Reuss) had steadily expanded their lands in the Breisgau, Alsace, and Switzerland, emerging as one of the leading families of Swabia.

1273-1291. RUDOLPH I. Indifferent to the Roman tradition, he concentrated on the advancement of his own dynasty, and founded the greatness of the Hapsburgs on territorial expansion of the family holdings and dynastic marriages. Edicts for the abolition of private war and support of local peace compacts (*Landfrieden*).

1276-1278. Struggle with Ottokar, King of Bohemia, over the usurped imperial fiefs of Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola (p. 240). Rudolf expelled Ottokar from Austria by force (1276), but allowed him to retain Bohemia and Moravia (after homage) as a buffer against Slavdom; dynastic alliance with the Hapsburgs. Ottokar was ultimately defeated and killed (1278, Aug. 26, battle of the Marchfeld), investiture of Rudolf's sons with the imperial fiefs of Austria, Styria, Carniola (1282) established the Hapsburgs on the Danube until 1918.

Rudolf threw away the last remnants of Frederick II's great imperial fabric: confirmation of papal rights in Italy and Ange-

The House of Hapsburg



in his southern day 275) renunciation of all imperial claims to the Papal States and Sicily (1279)

1291. Alarmed at the rapid rise of the Hapsburgs to first rank, the electors passed over Rudolf's son, choosing instead Adolf of Nassau in return for substantial considerations

1291. Revolt of the three Forest Cantons, Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden, and formation of a (Swiss) confederacy (p. 306)

1292-1298. ADOLF a strong imperialist, and able. He supported the towns and lesser nobles and entered into alliance with Edward I of England against Philip IV of France to protect the imperial fiefs of Franche Comté, Savoy, Dauphiné, Lyonnais, and Provence, long under French pressure. The alliance came to nothing, as the German princes were indifferent. The princes, alarmed at Adolf's advance in Meissen and Thuringia, deposed him (1298), electing Rudolf's rejected son Albert

1298-1308. ALBERT I (Albrecht), firm reduction of the ecclesiastical electoral princes (aid of the French and the towns), double dynastic marriage with the Capetians, acquisition of the crown of Bohemia (on the extinction of the Premyslids, 1306), Albert supported the Angevin Robert's acquisition of Hungary, the Rhineland was filled with Francophil clerical appointees of the pope, and the election of 1308 was dominated by French influence. Charles of Valois procured the election of

Henry of Luxemburg, brother of the Archbishop of Trier

1308-1313. HENRY VII (*Luxemburg*), Francophil devoted to Italian culture, and bent on restoring the empire. The marriage of his son John to the sister of King Wenceslas of Bohemia brought the throne of Bohemia to the house of Luxemburg (1310-1289)

1310-1313. Expedition to Italy at the urging of Pope Clement V and the Ghibellines, order restored, Milan, Cremona, Rome reduced, imperial coronation (1312), alliance of the pope and King Philip IV of France to save Naples from Henry

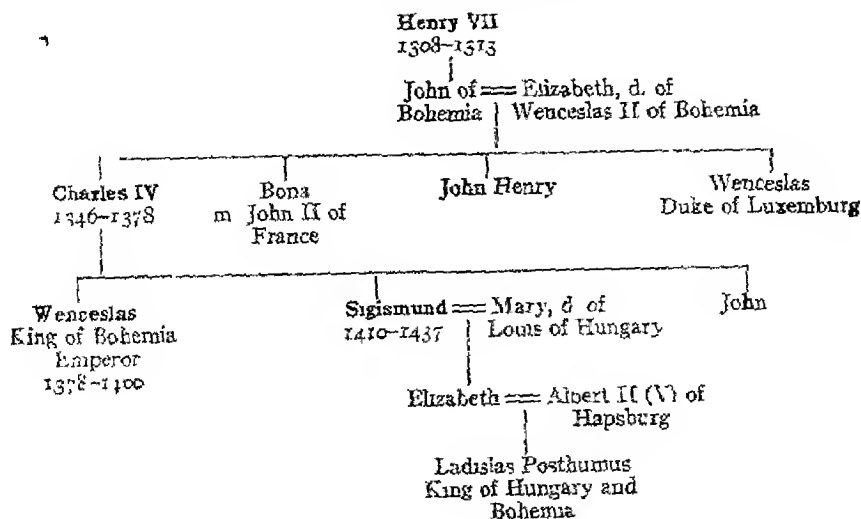
1314-1347. LOUIS IV (*Wittelsbach*). A Hapsburg anti-king, Frederick the Handsome, and civil war (until 1325). Bitter papal opposition (1323-1347, refusal of confirmation of Louis' title to the empire), Louis, backed by the German people, against the Avignonese pope. Violent war of propaganda, Marsiglio of Padua (*Defensor Pacis*, 1324) and William of Occam, defending the imperial position, gave wide currency to pre-Reformation ideas, Dante's *De Monarchia*, papal supporters, Augustino Trionfani and Pelagius

1327-1330. Louis' futile expedition to Italy and "lay" coronation (1328), his demand for a general council welcomed by the Italian Ghibellines

Effort to give the German monarchy a formal constitution.

1338. The Day at Rense formation of a strong electoral union (*Kurverein*),

The House of Luxemburg



de lara ion by he electors that election by a majority of the electors without papal confirmation is valid The Diet of Frankfurt. declaration (the *Lacet juris*) that the electors are competent to choose an emperor (i.e. papal intervention is not necessary), in effect the Holy Roman Empire was divorced entirely from the papacy

1346. Louis was deposed, but fought against his successor, Charles (son of King John of Bohemia, who had been elected after an open alliance with the pope)

1347-1378. CHARLES IV (*Luxemburg*)

Concentration on the advancement of his dynasty (in Silesia, the Palatinate, Lusatia, Brandenburg) and on the progress of Bohemia. Prague became one of the chief cities of the empire (the University founded, 1348). The Black Death (1348-1349); the Flagellants, anti-Semitic massacres. Promulgation of the Swabian League and numerous *Landfrieden* reduced private warfare. Dauphiné and Arles continued to drift into the French orbit

Further elaboration of a formal constitution of the empire

1356 THE GOLDEN BULL (in force until 1806) transformed the empire from a monarchy into an aristocratic federation, to avoid the evils of disputed elections. Seven electors, each a virtual sovereign: the Archbishops of Mainz, Trier, and Cologne, the Count Palatine of the Rhine, the Duke of Saxony, the Margrave of Brandenburg the King of Bohemia. Secular electorates to be indivisible and pass by primogeniture. Elections to be by majority vote and without delays, urban leagues forbidden without specific license, other restrictions on the towns. No mention of papal rights or claims. The electors to exercise supervision over the empire, a new function. The crown to remain in the house of Luxemburg

Charles openly regarded the empire as an anachronism, but valued the emperor's right to nominate to vacant fiefs

1364. Treaty of Brunn with the Hapsburgs, whereby either house (Luxemburg or Hapsburg) was to succeed to the lands of the other upon its extinction.

Little improvement in internal anarchy, climax of localism and the *Faustrecht*; the only islands of order and prosperity were the walled towns, the only basis of order were the town leagues (e.g. revival of the Rhine League [1354], the Swabian League), bitter warfare of classes, and princely opposition to the towns. Charles' vain appeal to the princes of Europe to resist France and end the Avignonese Captivity

Apogee of the Hanseatic League (p 307)

1378-1400 WENCESLAS (Wenzel son of Charles IV, King of Bohemia 1378-1410). Formation of the Knights' League (*League of the Lion*) followed by a series of political quarrels between the knights and lords on one side and the towns on the other, ending in the town war (1387-1389) and the defeat of the towns, but not their ruin. Rising Bohemian nationalism revolts, 1387-1396.

1400. Deposition of Wenceslas for drunkenness and incompetence. He refused to accept the decision, and the result was that at the end of the confused period (1400-1410) there were three rival emperors (Sigismund, Jobst, and Wenceslas) to correspond to the three rival popes.

1410-1437. SIGISMUND (*Luxemburg*, King of Bohemia, 1410-1437, King of Hungary by marriage). His main concern was to end the Great Schism, and he succeeded the King of France as protagonist of conciliar reform by forcing Pope John XXIII to call the Council of Constance (p 288). Establishment of the House of Wettin in Saxony (142), the Hohenzollerns (Frederick) in Brandenburg (1415). Sigismund's failure at Constance not merely alienated Bohemia but also ended any hope of German unification.

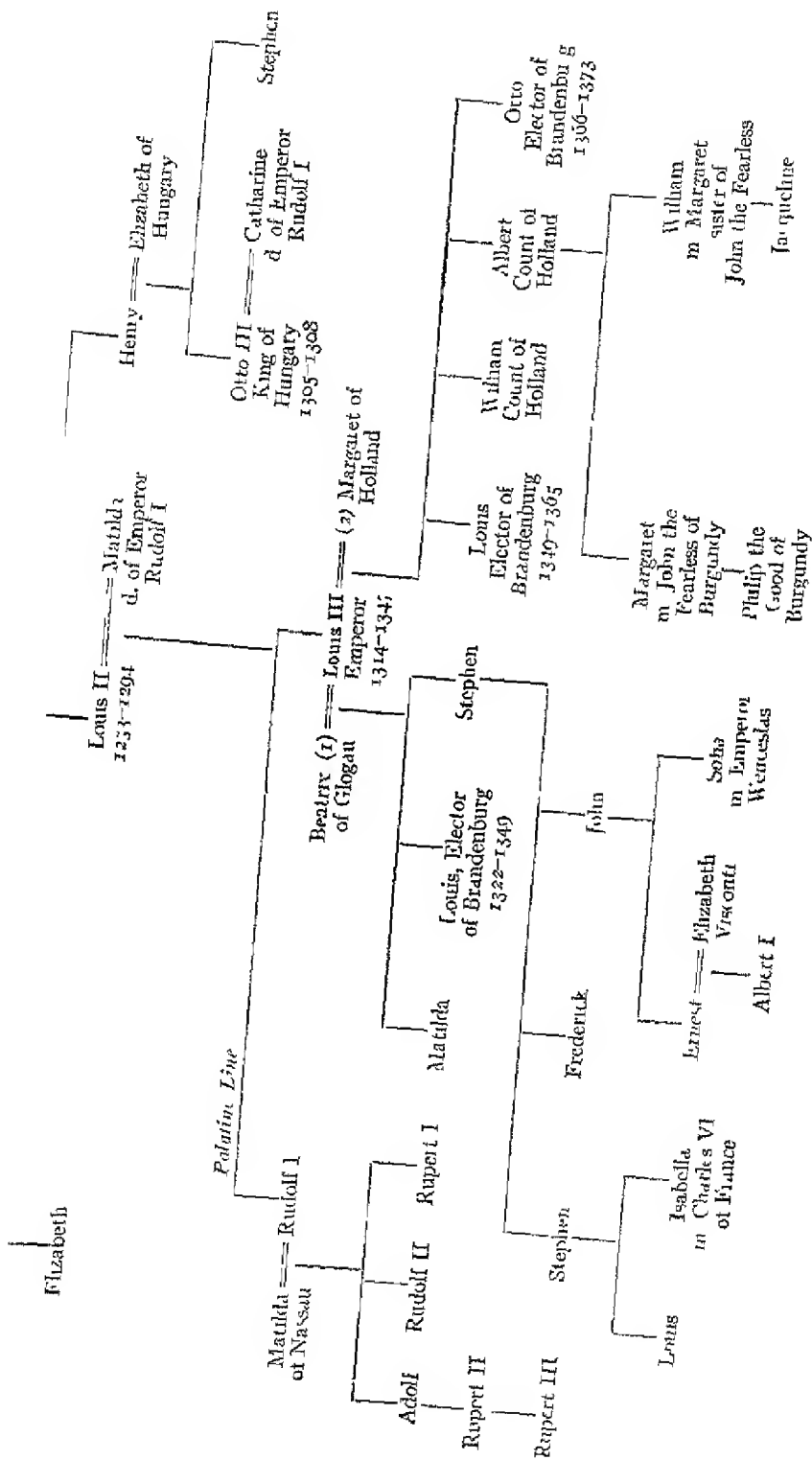
1410. Utter defeat of the Teutonic Knights by the Polish-Lithuanian army at Tannenberg, beginning of the decline of the Teutonic Knights.

1411. Peace of Thorn, halting of the Slav advance.

1420-1431. Emergence of BOHEMIAN NATIONALISM and the HUSSITE WARS (p 305).

1433. Called to the Council of Basel (p 280), the Hussites finally accepted the *Compactata* (which embodied the *Four Articles*), but the Church by its devious dealings alienated them and they began a final break from the Roman Church. Bohemian nationality asserted itself increasingly in the 15th century, and Bohemia never returned to the German orbit.

Sigismund struggled against the Turkish advance (1420-1427) and was crowned at Rome (1432). In the election of 1438, Frederick of Brandenburg (candidate of the political reformers in Germany) withdrew, making the choice of Albert of Hapsburg (Sigismund's son-in-law) unanimous. Albert also succeeded Sigismund on the thrones of Hungary and Bohemia. Henceforth the imperial crown in practice became hereditary in



1438-1740) 1806 THE HOUSE OF HAPSBURG.

1438-1439. ALBERT II.

1439. The Pragmatic Sanction of Mainz (abolition of annates, papal reservations, and provisions), a preliminary agreement between the papacy and the emperor, left the German Church under imperial and princely control and postponed reform till the days of Martin Luther

1440-1493 FREDERICK III The last emperor crowned (1452) at Rome by the pope, a handsome, placid *faineant* amateur astrologer, botanist, mineralogist, he ignored the existence of diets, debates, and appeals for crusades

Ladislav Posthumus (d 1457), nephew and ward of Frederick, became Duke of Austria (1440), was acknowledged King of Hungary (1445) and elected King of Bohemia (1440) with a council of regency. George Podiebrad (champion of the *Compactata*) emerged (1452) from the Bohemian civil war (Catholics vs Utraquists) as regent of Bohemia, and later king (1458-1471) (p 305)

1448 The Concordat of Vienna a compromise on cynical terms between the pope and the emperor on the reform issue. The papacy triumphed over the conciliar movement for reform, by dividing profits with the princes and emperor; external episcopal jurisdiction was excluded, the princes retained rights of presentation, obtained a share in episcopal taxation, and established an authority over the German Church which survived even the Reformation

1453. The capture of Constantinople (p 327) and end of the Eastern Empire left the Roman Empire without a rival and brought the Turkish menace to the frontier of Germany

1454. Traditional date for the invention of printing from movable metal type. This invention is usually attributed to Johann Gutenberg (c 1398-1468) of Mainz, printer of the so-called *Mazarin Bible* (1456). Printing had been in process of development for many years and was probably perfected not only by Gutenberg, but by others like Lourens Coster at Haarlem (1440), Albrecht Pfister of Bamberg, Peter Schoeffer and Johann Fust of Mainz

1456. Hunyadi (without imperial support) repulsed the Turk from Belgrade

1458. Election of Hunyadi's son Mathias Corvinus, King of Hungary (to 1490) and George Podiebrad, King of

Bohemia (to 1471), the climax of national spirit in Bohemia and Hungary.

1462. Pius II's annulment of the *Compactata* and the excommunication and deposition (1466) of Podiebrad reopened the Bohemian religious wars. Ladislav (elected 1468) succeeded on Podiebrad's death, as King of Bohemia (1471-1516), becoming King of Hungary in 1490 (see below)

1473. Frederick, faced with the threat of (French) Burgundian expansion in the empire, avoided giving Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, the royal title (p 280), and married his son Maximilian to Charles' daughter Mary (1477), bringing the Hapsburg fortunes to their zenith, and giving reality to his own monogram A.E.I.O.U. (*Austria est imperare orbi universo*, or, *Alles Erdreich ist Oesterreich unterthan*)

1485. Expelled from Vienna by Mathias Corvinus, Frederick became a chery imperial mendicant

1486. Maximilian, elected King of the Romans, became the real ruler of Germany and began the creation of the Hapsburg dynastic empire (*Cont* p 398)

(1) Bohemia, 1306-1471

1306. The Premyslid dynasty came to an end with the death of Wenceslas (Vaclav) III. There followed an interregnum, during which the Bohemians were driven out of Poland. The interregnum ended with the election of

1310-1346. JOHN OF LUXEMBURG, son of the Emperor Henry VII.

The circumstances of his accession forced John to issue a charter guaranteeing the rights and privileges of the nobility and clergy. Thus limitations of the royal power were fixed by written law. At the same time the national diet theretofore called only on special occasions became a regular institution. During this reign Bohemian overlordship over Upper Lusatia and Silesia was established.

John supported the Teutonic Knights against the Lithuanians and participated in three campaigns (1328, 1337, 1346). For a time (1331-1333) he ruled western Lombardy, as well as the Tyrol (1335-1341). John found his death in the battle of Crécy, where he fought on the side of the French. While he had shown little concern for Bohemian domestic affairs, he had made Bohemia a power in international politics.

1347-1378. CHARLES I (Charles IV as German Emperor), the son of John of Luxemburg. His reign is regarded as

the "golden age" of Bohemian history. A series of charters issued in 1348 established an order of dynastic succession and determined Bohemia's place in the Holy Roman Empire. Moravia, Silesia, and Upper Lusatia were to be indissolubly connected with the Bohemian crown. By the Golden Bull (1350, see p. 302) the King of Bohemia was given first place among the empire's secular electors. At the same time Bohemia's internal independence was guaranteed. Acquisition of Lower Lusatia (1370) and Brandenburg (1373). Charles ruled as a constitutional king and spared no effort to promote material well-being and cultural progress. A new code of laws, the *Maisius Carolina*, was published. Prague was rebuilt and beautified. The University of Prague founded (1348), the first university in central Europe.

1378-1419 WENCESLAS (Vaclav) IV, son of Charles. Gradual weakening of the connection with the German Empire. Loss of Brandenburg (1411). Continued conflicts with the barons. This was hastened by the development (since the end of the 14th century) of a national-religious movement which culminated in Hussitism. John Hus (1369-1415), a professor at the University of Prague and a popular preacher in the vernacular, was deeply influenced by the teaching of Wiclif and the Lollards in England. He attacked sale of indulgences, demanded reforms in the Church, challenged the primacy of the pope, and emphasized the supreme authority of the Scriptures. He also supported the native element in the university in the struggle which ended in the exodus of the alien Germans (1409), becoming rector of the university. Excommunicated by the pope and eager for vindication, he went to the Council of Constance (1415) under a safe-conduct from the emperor. His arrest in violation of this guaranty, his trial and burning (July 6), identified religious reform with Bohemian nationalism and split the empire in the

1420-1433. HUSSITE WARS. Refusal to recognize Sigismund as king. The reformers divided into two groups: (1) The moderate Calixtines, with the university as a center, favored separation of religious and political reform and formulated their program in the Four Articles of Prague (1420): full liberty of preaching, the cup to the laity (*Utraquism*), exclusion of the clergy from temporal activity and their subjection to civil penalties for crime. (2) The radical Taborites, under extreme Waldensian, Catharist, and Wiclifite influences, with a program of democracy and apostolic

The papal pr of a

Bohemian Crusade (not opposed by the Emperor Sigismund) united the nation behind John Ziska, a brilliant soldier, who led the Hussites in a series of victories (1420-1422). Ziska's "modernization" of tactics improved, mobile artillery, use of baggage wagons for mobile cover. Ziska's death (1424) did not affect the movement. Under a priest, Procop the Great, the Hussites defeated one crusade after another (1426, 1427, 1431) and carried the war into neighboring regions of Germany, on one occasion (1432) advancing as far as the Baltic. Then civil war broke out between the Calixtines and the Taborites (led by Procop the Great), the latter suffering defeat (1434).

1431-1436. The Council of Basel. The Hussites finally accepted a compromise, the *Compactata* (1436), recognizing them as true sons of the Church and conceding them the cup in the communion.

1436. Sigismund was finally accepted as king by all parties. He attempted a Catholic reaction, which was cut short by his death in the following year. Disputes continued between the Catholics and the Hussites, complicated by factional struggles between Hussite moderates and radicals and by social tension between nobility, townsmen and peasantry.

1437-1439. ALBERT OF AUSTRIA (son-in-law of Sigismund), elected king. An opposition group chose Ladislav, King of Poland. Albert died in the course of a civil war.

1439-1457. LADISLAS POSTHUMUS, the son of Albert. The Emperor Frederick III acted as his guardian, and for many years kept him from Bohemia. In the midst of continued factional conflict a young nobleman, George of Podiebrad, rose to power.

1448. George seized Prague and became head of the Hussites. He was recognized as administrator of the kingdom (1452) and devoted himself to the task of reconciling Catholics and Hussites. The radical wing of the latter was completely suppressed by the capture of Tabor (1452). George ultimately succeeded in bringing the young king to Prague, but Ladislav died before he could accomplish much in behalf of the Catholics.

1459-1471. GEORGE PODIEBRAD elected king. Policy of conciliation: vigorous persecution of the Bohemian Brotherhood, a puritanical sect with outspokenly democratic leanings, dating from the teaching of Peter of Chelchich (d. 1460), and, like the Taborites, rejecting all subordination to Rome. George an avowed

Hussite of the moderate school, was technically a heretic and soon found himself in conflict with the pope

1462. The pope denounced the agreements of Basel, and deposed George (1465). Thereupon the Catholic nobility of Bohemia elected Mathias of Hungary as king. George defeated him in a series of engagements, but the issue was undecided when George died. (Cont. p. 418.)

(2) *The Swiss Confederation, to 1499*

Lake Lucerne and the original Forest Cantons belonged to the Duchy of Swabia, and the expansion of powerful Swabian families during the Great Interregnum led the Forest Cantons to a determined effort to replace feudal allegiances to various nobles with a single direct allegiance to the emperor. Most powerful of the Swabian families was the rising house of Hapsburg (whose original lands expanded in the 13th century into the Aargau, Breisgau, and Alsace). Rudolf III (b. 1218) of Hapsburg sought to restore the Duchy of Swabia under his house.

The Forest Cantons of Uri (already acknowledged independent of any but a loose imperial allegiance in 1231), Schwyz, and Unterwalden, emerged as champions of local independence and masters of the St Gotthard Pass into Italy. Rudolf during the Interregnum expanded his suzerainty, but as emperor was too busy to assert it.

1291. First (known) League of the Three Forest Cantons, an undertaking for mutual defense, a kind of constitution, but not an independent federal league, as the cantons did not claim independence. Emperor Adolf confirmed the status of Uri and Schwyz, Henry VII that of Unterwalden, and henceforth the three Forest Cantons were thought of as a unit. The Swiss sent Henry VII three hundred soldiers for his Italian expedition, the first recorded use of Swiss troops outside their own borders.

1315, Nov. 15. Battle of Morgarten. Leopold of Austria, in an effort to crush the Swiss and punish them for support of Louis IV against the Hapsburg Frederick the Handsome, was thoroughly beaten at Morgarten, a battle which began the brilliant career of the Swiss infantry in Europe. Renewal and strengthening of the league and its confirmation by Louis IV.

1332-1353. Additions to the three Forest Cantons: Canton of Lucerne (1332), Canton of Zürich (1351); Canton of Glarus (1351); Canton of Bern (1353).

bringing the number to seven, half of which were peasant cantons, the other half urban.

1385, July 9. BATTLE OF SEMPACH. The confederation, supported by the Swabian League, defeated the Hapsburg Leopold II of Swabia. In 1388 another victory was won at Näfels.

1394. Twenty-year truce between the confederation and the Duke of Austria. Austria abandoned claims on Zug and Glarus. The confederation became solely dependent on the empire, which amounted to practical independence.

The confederation was controlled by a federal diet (1393), but the cantons retained the widest possible autonomy. Throughout the succeeding period there was but little evidence of union. The various cantons followed their own interests (Lucerne and Schwyz looked to the north; Bern to the west, Uri to the south) and wrangled among themselves. Only the threat from Austria invariably united them against the common enemy. In the meanwhile the 15th century was marked by continual struggles and conflicts with neighbors, as a result of which further territories were brought into the confederation and some approach was made to natural frontiers.

1403. The Canton of Uri began expansion southward, to get control of the passes to the Milanese. In 1410 the whole Val Antigorio was conquered, with Domodossola. The Swiss were driven out by the Duke of Savoy in 1413, but in 1416 regained mastery of the country.

1415. Conquest in the north of the Aargau, from Frederick of Austria, at the behest of his rival, the Emperor Sigismund.

1419. Purchase of Bellinzona, which, however, was seized by the Visconti of Milan (1422).

1436-1450. Civil war between Zürich and some of the neighboring cantons over the succession to the domains of the Count of Toggenburg. Zürich allied itself with Emperor Frederick IV (1442), but was defeated by Schwyz (1443), Zürich besieged (1444). Frederick called in the French, but after a defeat near Basel, the French withdrew. The emperor made peace at Constance (June 12, 1446) and in 1450 peace was made within the confederation. The general effect of the war was to strengthen the confederacy.

1460. Conquest of the Thurgau from Austria gave the confederation a frontier on Lake Constance.

1474-1477. The great war against Charles the Bold of Burgundy whose de-

signs on Alsace were regarded as a menace to the confederation. The Swiss allied themselves with the South German cities. This combination was joined by the emperor (perpetual peace, Mar 30, 1474. Austria again renounced claims to Swiss territory). Louis XI of France also joined, but in 1475 both the emperor and the king withdrew again. Great victories of the Swiss at Grandson (Mar 2, 1476), Morat or Murten (June 22, 1476), and at Nancy (Jan 5, 1477) sealed the fate of Charles' plans and established the great military reputation of the Swiss, who were thenceforth sought far and wide as mercenaries.

1478. War with Milan. Victory of the Swiss at Giornico (Dec 28). Alliance with the pope, who was allowed to engage Swiss forces.

1481. Solothurn and Fribourg were admitted to the Confederation after a long dispute among the members. The Diet of Stans drew up a covenant by which federal relations were regulated until 1798. Henceforth the urban cantons were in a majority.

1499. War with the emperor over disputed territories in the east. The emperor was supported by the South German cities, while the Swiss enjoyed the support, especially financial, of the French. The Swiss won a series of victories (especially Dornach, July 22) and forced the emperor to conclude the Treaty of Basel (Sept 22) which granted the confederation independence of the empire in fact, if not formally (this came only in 1648). By the inclusion of Basel and Schaffhausen (1501) and later Appenzell (1513), the confederation rounded out its northern frontier.

The Swiss at the end of the 15th century enjoyed immense military prestige, but within the confederation there was much social unrest, especially among the peasants, and a good deal of demoralization in the towns. Hans Waldmann, burgermeister of Zurich (1483-1486), was only the most outstanding of the typical ruthless, mercenary, cynical figures which dominated the scene and which remind one of the contemporaneous Italian despots.

(Cont p 408)

(3) The Hanseatic League

Hansa (Old French *Hanse*, Mod Latin *Hansa*), meaning a group, company, or association.

Associations (*Hansas*) and partial unions of North German towns date from the 13th century and were an important aspect of

the great town development of Germany in that period.

c 1000. German traders were established on the island of Gothland and in London.

c 1150-c 1250. Revival of the German river trade, notably along the Rhine, centering in the towns of Cologne, Dortmund, Soest, and Munster. At the same time the German expansion toward the Slav east extended the sphere of German trade along the Baltic coasts. In the later 12th century the German settlement on Gothland (Wisby) became autonomous and established an offshoot at Novgorod (*St Peter's Yard*) which became the focus of the important Russian trade.

1226. Lubeck (founded 1143) secured an imperial charter from Frederick II. Hamburg followed in 1206-1267.

1237. Wisby secured trading rights in England, and soon afterward in Flanders.

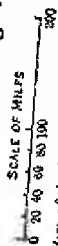
1241. Lubeck and Hamburg formed an alliance to protect the Baltic trade routes.

1256. The Wendish towns (Lubeck, Stralsund, Wismar, Rostock, Greifswald, and later Luneburg) held their first recorded meeting. Lubeck began to emerge as the dominant North German town, a position which it retained throughout the history of the Hanseatic League. Most of the commercial towns followed the *Code of Lubeck*, which was an early source of unity between them. By the end of the century the Wendish towns had taken the leadership from the Gothland merchants.

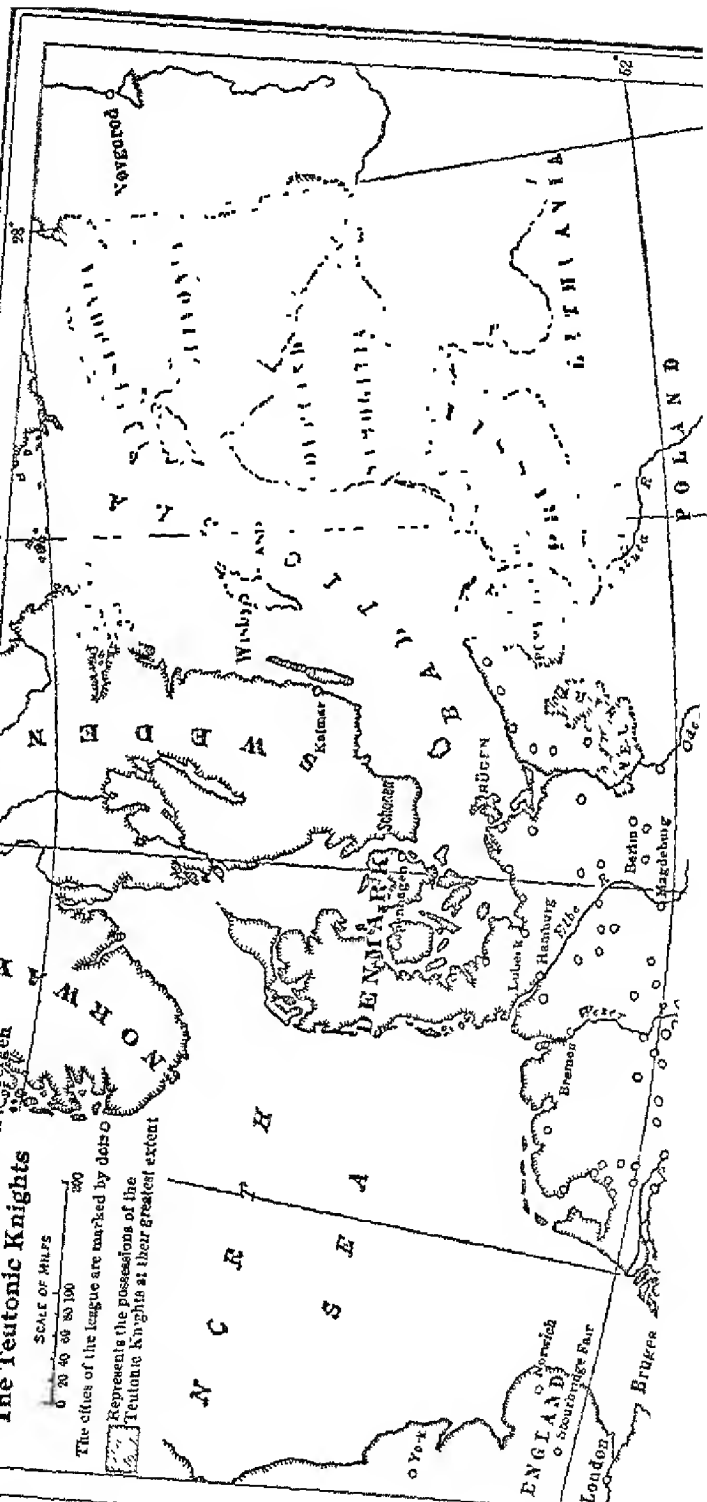
1282. The Germans in London formed a corporation and established their own guildhall and steelyard. Other German yards were opened at York, Bristol, Yarmouth, Lynn, and Boston. The London trade was dominated by Cologne, but the yards at Lynn and Boston were under the control of Lubeck and Hamburg.

THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE No date can be fixed for its organization, which was evidently the result of the lack of a powerful German national government able to guarantee security for trade. Its formation was no doubt facilitated by the mediaeval affinity for co-operative action and for monopoly. The term *Hanseatic League* was first used in a document in 1344. The exclusion of Germans abroad (1366) from the privileges of the Hansa indicates a growing sense of unity, but league members spoke of the association merely as a *firma confederatio* for trade, and throughout its history it remained a loose aggregation. This or allowed a

The Hanseatic League and The Teutonic Knights



The cities of the league are marked by dots.
Represents the possessions of the
Teutonic Knights at their greatest extent



ENGLAND
London
Bruges

maximum of independence to its members and was not modified until the league was put on the defensive in the 15th century. The league never had a true treasury or officials in a strict sense, its only common seal was that of Lübeck, it had no common flag. Assemblies of the members (*Hanse-tage*) were summoned by Lübeck at irregular intervals and were sparsely attended, except in times of crisis. The objectives of the league were mutual security, extortion of trading privileges, and maintenance of trade monopoly wherever possible. The chief weapon against foreigners or recalcitrant members was the economic boycott and (rarely) war. Primarily concerned with the North European trade, the Hansa towns dealt chiefly in raw materials (timber, pitch, tar, turpentine, iron, copper), livestock (horses, fowls, etc.), salt fish (cod and especially herring), leather, hides, wool, grain, beer, amber, drugs, and some textiles. The four chief *kontors* were Wisby, Bergen, London, and Bruges.

1340-1375. WALDEMAR IV of Denmark, who freed his country of the German domination and took up the struggle against the powerful Hansa towns. He threatened the Hanseatic monopoly of the herring trade by his seizure of Scania, and in 1361 cut the Russian-Baltic trade route by his capture of Wisby. In 1362 he defeated the German fleets at Helsingborg. By the Peace of Wordingborg (1365) the Hansa was deprived of many of its privileges in Denmark.

1367. THE CONFEDERATION OF COLOGNE, effected by a meeting of representatives of 77 towns, organized common defence and naval preparations for the struggle. Reconstruction of Scandinavian alliances to meet the threat from Waldemar. After a series of victories, the German towns extorted from the Danish *Reichsrat*.

1370. THE PEACE OF STRALSUND, which gave the league four castles in Scania (dominating the Sound), control of two-thirds of the Scanian revenues for 15 years, and the right to veto the succession to the Danish throne unless their monopoly was renewed by the candidate. The treaty marked the apogee of Hanseatic power and virtually established control over the Baltic trade and over Scandinavian politics. The Baltic monopoly was not finally broken until 1447 after a war with the Dutch. Wisby itself never recovered from Waldemar's sack, and was long a nest of pirates (e.g. the famous *Victual Brothers*).

FLANDERS. The Germans in Bruges received a special grant of privileges in

1252, which allowed them their own ordinances and officials. They later (1309) established exemption from the usual brokerage charges levied on foreigners and eventually won an influential voice in the affairs of the city, notably in foreign policy. The revised statutes of the Bruges Kontor (1347) recognized the division of the Hanseatic League into thirds. The Wendish Saxon; the Prusso-Westphalian, and the Gothland-Livland thirds. Bruges was the most ardent champion of Hanseatic unity, and, with Lübeck, was the chief source of such cohesion as the League attained. A boycott in 1360 brought the town into complete submission to the League.

ENGLAND. The Hansa towns, by maintaining friendly relations to the crown, were able to ignore the growing national hostility to alien traders (directed at first mainly against the Italians) and to avoid granting reciprocal privileges to the English in return for their own exclusive rights (notably those claimed under Edward I's *Carta Mercatoria* of 1303). One source of Hanseatic influence derived from loans to the crown, especially during the Hundred Years' War. The English themselves began to penetrate into the Baltic (c. 1360) and growing public resentment against the league led to increased customs dues, but Richard II in 1377 renewed the privileges of the league thus firmly establishing the Hanseatic power in England. The Sound was opened to the English in 1451, and the league, profiting by the Wars of the Roses, secured full title to the steelyard in London (1474) and the renewal of rights in Boston and Lynn. Not until the days of Elizabeth were the Hanseatic privileges finally reduced.

DECLINE OF THE LEAGUE. Externally the league was weakened by the disorders of the Hundred Years' War, by the rise of Burgundy and the new orientation thereby given to Dutch trade (e.g. Brill wrested the monopoly of the herring trade from the league), and by the great discoveries and the opening of new trade routes. But above all, the monopolistic policies of the league aroused ever sharper opposition in the countries where the league operated (notably in England, Holland, Scandinavia, and Russia; Ivan III destroyed the Novgorod Kontor in 1494). Internally the league continued to suffer from lack of organization. The inland towns held aloof from the Baltic policy and Cologne sent no representatives to the assembly until 1383. The assembly itself was summoned only at irregular intervals. The delegates were strictly bound by their mandates and their votes were subject to

few by their home towns. Decisions were not binding on all members until 1418. In the 15th century the league was further weakened by the struggle within the member towns between the democratic guildsmen and the patrician oligarchy. The league threatened the expulsion of "democratic" towns. The German princes (notably the Hohenzollerns of Brandenburg) gradually reduced the freedom of various powerful members of the league and rivalries broke out within the league itself. Cologne and the Westphalian towns stood together, as did Danzig and the Prussian towns, especially after 1467. The South German towns opened direct trade relations of their own with Flanders, Breslau, Prague, and other centers, and began to establish their own fairs. Leipzig, for example, replaced Lubeck as the center of the fur trade.

1529. The Assembly entrusted the guardianship of the common welfare to Lubeck, Hamburg, and Bremen.

1669. The last assembly (attended by six towns) was held. The league by this time was the merest shadow of its former self, but its Kontors survived in Bergen until 1775, in London until 1852 and in Augsburg until 1863.

(4) *The Teutonic Knights*

The 14th century marked the apogee of the power of the Teutonic Order in eastern Europe. The Knights began the penetration of Poland, where Germans settled some 650 districts and where the middle class of the towns became German in speech and law, much to the alarm of the rulers and nobles. At the same period the Knights advanced into Lithuania, a huge region extending from the Baltic to the Black Sea, the last heathen area in Europe. German colonization and town-building first opened and civilized this region.

1326-1333. **THE FIRST POLISH WAR**, marking a sharp reaction to German penetration and putting the order for the first time on the defensive. With the aid of John of Bohemia, Louis of Hungary, Albert of Austria, Louis of Brandenburg and others, the order emerged triumphant and the Poles were obliged to conclude a truce.

1343. **PEACE OF KALISCH.** The Poles, despite papal support of their claims to Pomerania, were obliged to recognize the Order's possession of the territory, in return for a promise of aid against the Lithuanians. Poland was thus cut off from the Baltic.

1343-1345. **The Estonian Revolt**, one of the worst *jacqueries* of the Middle Ages. Estonia was taken by the Order from the Danes in 1346.

1385. **Union of Poland and Lithuania** under Jagiello and Jadwiga, thus creating a strong barrier to the further advance of the Germans and indeed, sealing the ultimate fate of the Order.

1410, July 15. **Defeat of the Knights in the battle of Tannenberg** by a huge army of Poles and Lithuanians. Poland, unable to exploit the victory, concluded.

1411. **THE FIRST PEACE OF THORN**, which cost the Knights only Samogitia and an indemnity.

1454. **The Prussian Revolt**, a great uprising against the oppressive rule of the Order in which the Prussian nobility and towns took part. The movement was supported by the Poles and Casimir of Poland declared war on the Order.

1466. **SECOND PEACE OF THORN.** Prussia was divided. (1) West Prussia (including Danzig, Kulm, Marienwerder, Thorn, and Ermland) went to Poland, thus cutting East Prussia off from the rest of Germany and securing for Poland access to the sea. (2) East Prussia was retained by the Order, with Königsberg as capital. East Prussia, Brandenburg, and Memel were all to be held as Polish fiefs. The Order was opened to Polish members. This peace marked the definite end of the German advance until the partitions of Poland.

The decline of the Order continued (growing commercialization, earthiness, lack of new blood, loss of discipline, Slavic pressure) despite efforts at reform by various grand masters.

1525. East Prussia was finally secularized by the grand master, Albrecht (Hohenzollern) of Brandenburg and became a fief of the Hohenzollerns under the Polish crown.

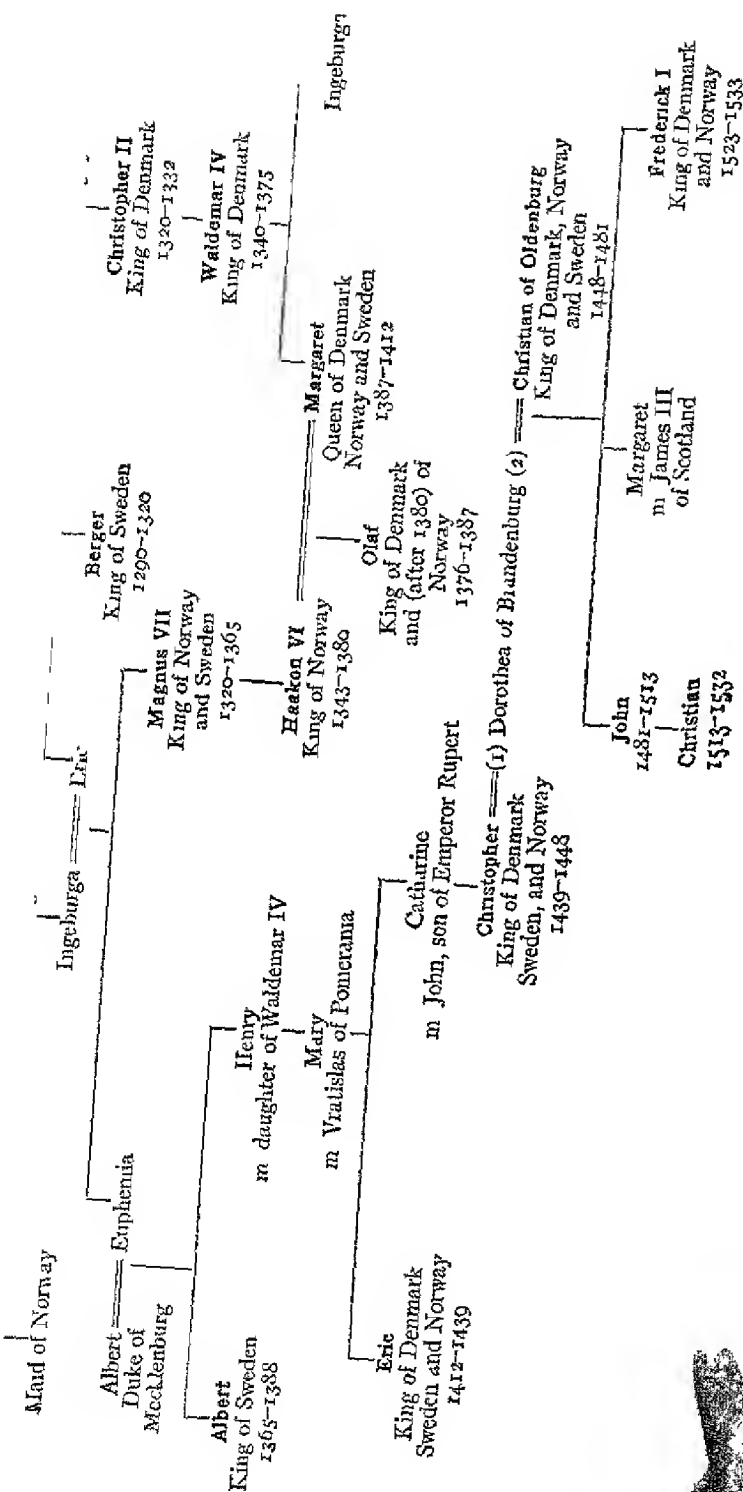
1561. The Livonian holdings were similarly transformed and became the Duchy of Courland.

The Order itself survived in Germany until 1809 and was later revived in 1840 under Hapsburg auspices with its original functions (e.g. ambulance service in war).

f. SCANDINAVIA

(1) *Denmark, 1320-1387*

The active and on the whole successful reign of Eric Menved (1286-1320) was followed in Denmark by a period of



and decline, marked by the ascendancy of the nobility and the constant advance of German influence

1320-1332. CHRISTOPHER II, elected king after a capitulation, the first in Danish history, limiting the royal power in the interest of the nobility and clergy. The Hansa towns, having acquired a monopoly of trade in Denmark, soon became dominant in Danish politics.

1332-1340. A period of complete anarchy. Christopher was driven from the throne by Gerhard, Count of Holstein, who parceled out the territories of the crown, established German nobles in all the important fortresses, and gave the German traders full rein. Gerhard was murdered in 1340.

1340-1375 WALDEMAR IV, the youngest son of Christopher and one of the greatest Danish kings. At home he did his utmost to break the German influence and to restrict the power of the nobility and the clergy. The Church was subordinated to the royal power and the nobles and towns obliged to perform their military obligations. Abroad Waldemar devoted himself to the reconquest of the territories lost by his father. In wars with Sweden, Holstein, and Schleswig he regained Zealand (1346), most of Funen and Jutland (1348), and Scania (1360). His seizure of Gothland (1361) brought him into direct conflict with the powerful Hansa towns, which were supported by Sweden.

1361-1363. First War against the Hansa. Copenhagen was sacked, but Waldemar defeated the Hansa fleets at Helsingborg (1362) and forced the Hansa to accept peace (1363) which greatly curtailed their privileges.

1368. A revolt against heavy taxation led to Waldemar's flight. His return (1370) was purchased by tremendous concessions. Meanwhile

1368-1370. THE SECOND WAR WITH THE HANSA had broken out. The German towns were supported by Sweden, Norway, Holstein, Mecklenburg, and even by some of the Danish nobles. Waldemar, badly defeated, was obliged to accept

1370 THE PEACE OF STRALSUND, renewing the privileges of the German Hansa, turning over the larger part of the revenues of four places and accepting interference in the royal succession. This treaty marked the ascendancy of the Hansa in the Baltic.

1376-1387. Olaf, grandson of Waldemar, who, until his death, ruled with his mother Margaret as regent.

1387-1412. Margaret, mother of Olaf, was queen, ruling at the same time Norway and Sweden and thus uniting Scandinavia.

(2) Sweden, 1319-1387

1319-1363. MAGNUS II (*Smek*), aged three at his accession and, until 1333, ruler under the regency of his mother. He was a weak and ineffectual ruler but through his mother succeeded (1319) to the Norwegian crown and, during the troubled period in Denmark, managed to acquire, temporarily, Scania, Halland, and Bleking (given up again in 1360, to Waldemar IV). His long minority and his reliance on unworthy favorites led to a striking weakening of the royal power and an equally striking rise of the aristocratic party (first *Riksdag*, including burghers 1359). Magnus was ultimately deposed and was succeeded by

1363-1388. Albert of Mecklenburg, who from the outset was merely a tool of the nobility. The magnates eventually deposed him and defeated him, calling to the throne

1388-1412. MARGARET, the regent of Denmark.

(3) Norway, 1320-1387

1319-1343. Magnus II, who was also King of Sweden. In 1343 he turned over Norway to his son.

1343-1380 Haakon VI, who was married (1363) to Margaret of Denmark.

1380-1387. Olaf, the son of Haakon and Margaret, already King of Denmark, succeeded to the throne. His death ended the Norwegian line.

1387-1412. MARGARET, mother of Olaf, was elected to the throne, thus introducing into Norway the system of election already in practice in Denmark and Sweden.

(4) The Union of Kalmar to 1483

1387-1412 MARGARET OF DENMARK, ruler of all three Scandinavian kingdoms. She had her grand-nephew, Eric of Pomerania, elected king of all three countries in 1396, but retained effective power herself.

1397. Coronation of Eric. Margaret presented a draft for the union of the three kingdoms. Vague and incomplete, the plan provided for a single king, established rules of succession, and set up a system of common defense. It was never

ratified by the councils of the heretofore kings but as long as Margaret lived, it worked relatively well. The union left the internal government of each kingdom much as it was. Margaret, an able despot (the Lübeck delegates called her "the lady king"), repressed the nobles, maintained order and began the recovery of the Danish royal domain. In general the Danes profited by the union, and Danes and Germans were gradually assimilated into power in Sweden and Norway. Effective government of Scandinavia was centered in Denmark.

1412-1439. ERIC, Margaret's successor, proved himself less able. His efforts to regain control in Schleswig led to a long contest with the Dukes of Holstein, who, in alliance with the Hansa towns, finally conquered Schleswig completely (1432). At the same time much unrest developed among the peasantry (especially in Sweden, where Engelbrecht Engelbrechtson emerged as a leader of the lower classes).

1434. Engelbrecht marched through eastern and southern Sweden, seizing castles and driving out bailiffs, until the Diet of 1435 recognized his demands, electing him regent. This diet included representatives of all four orders and for four hundred years continued to be an important institution. The movement of revolt spread to Norway, where it was taken up and controlled by the nobles. Eric finally took flight and the Danish council called in

1439-1448. CHRISTOPHER of Bavaria, cousin of Eric who again ruled all three countries (elected in Sweden, 1440, in Norway, 1442). His reign marked the decline of the monarchy, for Christopher was

entirely dependent on the Hansa towns and was obliged to renew all their privileges, despite protests from the Danish burghers.

1448-1481. CHRISTIAN I (of Oldenburg) was elected by the Danish council under a capitulation which left all real power in the hands of that body. He had to accept a similar engagement on assuming the crown of Norway. The Swedish nobility, on the other hand, elected Knut Knutsson as king with the title of Charles VIII (1449-1457). Charles tried to secure the throne of Norway, but was ousted by Christian.

1457. Charles VII was driven out of Sweden by a revolt inspired by the Church. Christian I was then crowned, but the real power was in the hands of the Stures (Sten, Svane, and Sten the Younger). Christian kept a great state, but his court, like that of Christopher and Eric, was filled with Germans, and he was financially dependent on the Hansa cities. The union of Schleswig and Holstein, each autonomous under the crown of Denmark, was arranged in 1460. Christian founded the University of Copenhagen (1479).

Sweden in the later 15th century: The crown was a plaything of the nobles, while the clergy supported the King of Denmark. A rising commerce and industry was, however, creating a burgher class which was soon to assert itself. Sten Sture the Younger, who came into power with the death of Charles VIII, repulsed Christian of Denmark (1471) with the aid of the towns (especially Stockholm) and returned to the reforms of Engelbrecht. The University of Uppsala was founded (1477) and printing was introduced soon afterward.

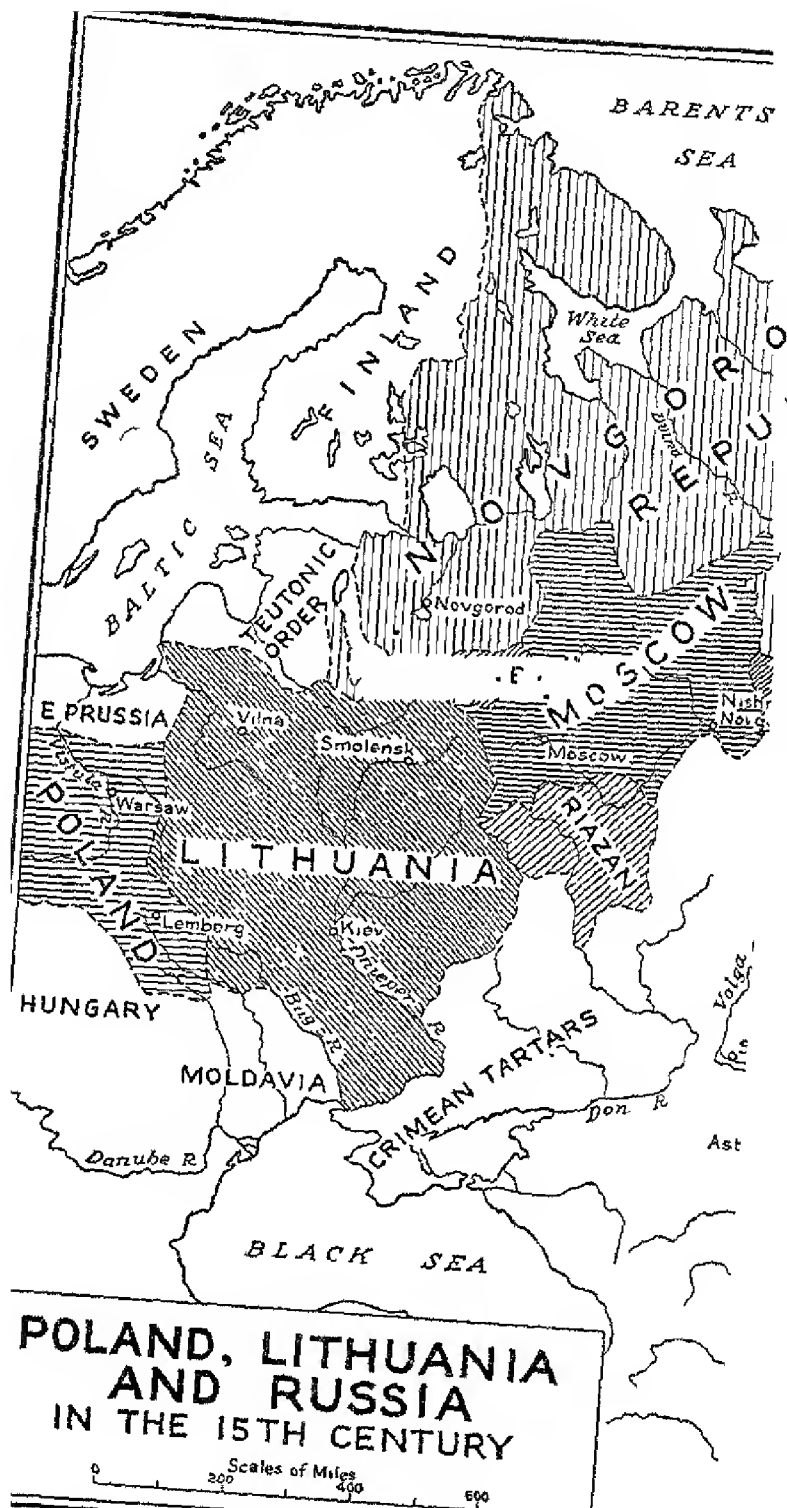
(Cont. p. 410)

2. EASTERN EUROPE

a. POLAND, 1305-1492

The history of Poland in this period was concerned chiefly with the efforts of the kings to reunite the various duchies and to establish the royal power. This policy was opposed, with success, by the nobility, which, as elsewhere in Europe, managed to extract countless privileges and to erect a type of oligarchical government. Externally the Poles were involved in a long struggle with the Teutonic Knights, designed to secure an outlet to the Baltic. This conflict alternated with a policy of expansion to the southeast, toward the Black Sea.

1305-1333. VLADISLAV IV (Lokietek), under whom Poland regained its independence after a brief period of Bohemian domination. Vladislav was obliged to continue the struggle against Bohemia, and was not crowned until 1320. For protection he concluded dynastic alliances with Hungary (his daughter married Charles Robert of Anjou) and Lithuania (his son Casimir married the daughter of Gedymin). He did much to reunite the various duchies and established a new capital at Cracow. But he failed to secure Pomerania, which in 1309 passed from Brandenburg to the Teutonic Order. A papal decision in 1321 awarded the region to Poland, but the Knights



the o de to turn t o er and continued their rads into Polish territory (1326-1333).

1333-1370. CASIMIR III (the Great), an astute and cautious statesman. He introduced an improved administration, reduced the influence of the German town law (a new law code published), developed national defense and promoted trade and industry (extensive privileges to the Jews, 1334). In 1364 he founded a school at Cracow, which became a university in 1400 and the chief intellectual center of eastern Europe.

In foreign affairs Casimir abandoned claims to Silesia and Pomerania, turning his attention toward the southeast, where dynastic problems in the Ukraine called forth dangerous rivalry between Poles, Lithuanians, and Hungarians. By an agreement with Hungary (1339), Casimir, who had no direct heir, promised that on his death the Polish crown should pass to Louis, the son of Charles Robert of Hungary. Louis was to reconquer the lost territories and to respect the privileges of the Polish nobility. This marks the beginning of the disastrous elective system which gave the magnates an unequalled opportunity for extracting further rights (first real diet — *colloquia* — in 1367). In 1340 Casimir seized Halicz, Lemberg, and Volhynia. War ensued with Lithuania over Volhynia and ultimately the Poles retained only the western part (1366).

1370-1382 LOUIS (of Anjou). He paid but little attention to Poland, which he governed through regents. To secure the succession to his daughter Maria (married to Sigismund, son of Emperor Charles IV) he granted to the nobility the *Charter of Koszyce* (Kaschau), the basis of far-reaching privileges.

1382-1384 Opposition to Sigismund led to the formation of the Confederation of Radom and civil war between the factors or the nobility.

1384-1399. JADWIGA (Hedwig), a daughter of Louis, was elected queen.

1386 Marriage of Jadwiga to Jagiello, Grand Duke of Lithuania, who promised to become a Christian and to unite his duchy (three times the size of Poland) with the Polish crown. As a matter of fact, though the marriage prepared the way for union, Jagiello was obliged to recognize his cousin, Witold, as Grand Duke of Lithuania, and the connection continued to be tenuous.

1386-1434. JAGIELLO (title Vladislav V). He had great difficulty in keeping his fractious nobility in order and in 1433 was obliged to grant the *Charter of*

Cracow, reaffirming and extending their privileges.

1410, July 15. BATTLE OF TANNENBERG (Grunwald), a great victory of the Poles, using Bohemian mercenaries under John Ziska and supported by the Russians and even the Tatars, against the Teutonic Knights. The Poles thereupon devastated Prussia, but Jagiello, unable to keep his vassals in order, concluded the

1411, Feb. 1. FIRST PEACE OF THORN, which left matters much as they were and failed to secure for the Poles an access to the Baltic.

1434-1444. VLADISLAV VI, son of Jagiello, succeeded to the throne. Since he was only ten years old, the country was ruled by a regency. Vladislav's brother, Casimir, was offered the Bohemian throne by the Hussites (1438), and Vladislav himself became King of Hungary (1440). Thenceforth he devoted himself to Hungarian affairs, leaving Poland in the hands of the magnates. Vladislav lost his life in 1444 at the battle of Varna (p. 326) against the Turks.

1444-1447 An interregnum, followed by the reign of

1447-1492. CASIMIR IV, brother of Vladislav. He was able to make use of a rift between the great nobles (magnates) and the gentry (*szlachta*). The *Statute of Nieszawa* greatly limited the power of the former and granted substantial rights to the latter (no laws to be passed, no war to be declared without their consent). At the same time the independence of the church was curtailed (bishops to be appointed by the king).

1454-1466. War against the Teutonic Order. The Poles took advantage of the Prussian Union (Prussian nobles and towns in opposition to the Order). The war was carried on in desultory fashion, marked by constant shifting of the feudal forces and of the mercenaries from side to side, but the Poles ultimately gained the upper hand and secured

1466, Oct. 19. THE SECOND PEACE OF THORN, by which Poland finally secured an outlet to the Baltic. Poland acquired Kulm, Michelau, Pomerania, Marienburg, Elbing, and Christburg. The Order became a vassal of the Polish crown, and half its membership became Polish.

1471-1516 Vladislav, the son of Casimir, became King of Bohemia, which involved a long and indecisive war with Hungary (1471-1478). Eventually Vladislav became King of Hungary also (1490).

b. LITHUANIA

Of the early history of Lithuania little is known. The numerous heathen tribes were first brought to some degree of unity by the threat of the German Knights (after 1230).

c. 1240-1263. **MINDOVS**, one of the Lithuanian chieftains in order to deprive the Knights of their crusading purpose, accepted Christianity and was given a crown by Pope Innocent IV. He later broke with the Teutonic Order (1260) and relapsed into paganism. He was killed by one of his competitors. Of the following period almost nothing is known.

1293-1316. **VITEN** re-established a Lithuanian state.

1316-1341. **GEDYMIN**, the real founder of Lithuania. Blocked by the Germans on the Baltic, he took advantage of the weakness of the Russian principalities to extend his control to the east and south (acquisition of Polotsk, Minsk, and the middle-Dnieper region). Vilno became the capital of the new state.

1341-1377. **OLGERD**, the son of Gedymin, was the ablest of the dynasty. Defeated by the Knights (1360) he too turned eastward. Siding with Tver in the dynastic conflicts of Russia, he advanced several times to the very outskirts of Moscow. During his reign the domain of Lithuania was extended as far as the Black Sea where Olgerd defeated the Tatars (1368).

1377-1494. **JAGIELLO**, the son of Olgerd, married Jadwiga of Poland (1386) and established the personal union with Poland. Through him Lithuania became converted to Roman Catholicism and the Polish and Lithuanian nobility gradually became assimilated. In 1387 and 1389 Moldavia and Wallachia, and in 1396 Bessarabia accepted Lithuanian suzerainty.

1398. Jagiello was obliged to recognize his cousin, Vitovt (Wytold) as Grand Duke of Lithuania. Vitovt hoped to re-establish the independence of the country from Poland, but his failure in a crusade against the Tatars greatly weakened him.

1447. **CASIMIR IV** of Poland, having been Grand Duke of Lithuania before his accession, once again united the grand duchy and the Polish kingdom.

(Cont. p. 413)

c. RUSSIA, 1263-1505

The period following the death of **Alexander Nevski** (1263) was marked by the continued and repeated disruption of the Russian lands, due to the complicated and

unfortunate system of succession in the princely family. Russia was under the suzerainty of the Tatars, who played off one candidate against another thus increasing the confusion and perpetuating the weakness of the country. The rise of Moscow (first mentioned 1147) to prominence among the Russian principalities was perhaps the most important development looking toward the future. Centrally located, Moscow was in the most favorable position to serve as nucleus for a revived Russian state.

1325-1341. **IVAN I KALITA** (*Moneybag*), Grand Prince of Moscow. His was the first of a series of noteworthy reigns. Extremely cautious and parsimonious, Ivan bought immunity from Tatar interference and was ultimately entrusted by the Tatars with the collection of tribute from the other princes.

1341-1358. **SIMEON I** continued the policy of his predecessor and was placed, by the Tatar overlord, above all the other princes.

1358-1359. **IVAN II Krasnyi** (*the Red*).

1359-1389. **DMITRI DONSKOI** (of the Don), who ascended the princely throne at the age of nine. His reign was filled with a struggle against Michael of Tver, his chief rival, who was supported by Olgerd of Lithuania. At the same time he began the conflict with the Tatars, whose power was fading, but who also enjoyed the support of Lithuania.

1380, Sept. 8. **THE BATTLE OF KULIKOVO**. Dmitri completely defeated the Tatar armies before the Lithuanians arrived. The victory was in no sense decisive, for the Tatars on several occasions thereafter advanced to the very gates of Moscow. But Kulikovo broke the prestige of the Tatar arms and marked the turning point.

1389-1425. **BASIL I**. He annexed Nislin-Novgorod and continued the struggle with the Tatars and the Lithuanians without forcing a decision.

1425-1462. **BASIL II**, whose reign was distinguished by a relapse into anarchy. A long civil war with his rivals, Yuri and Shemyaka, was followed by Tatar invasion (1451, the Tatars beaten back from Moscow). Nevertheless the Moscow principality managed to maintain itself. In 1439 Basil refused to accept the union of the Eastern and Western Churches, arranged for at the Council of Florence. Thenceforth the Russian metropolitan, who had moved to Moscow in the time of Ivan Kalita, became more and more the head of an independent Russian Church.

1462-1505 IVAN III (the Great), who may be regarded as the first national sovereign of Russia. By a cautious but persistent policy he annexed most of the rival principalities and, after a series of wars, subjected Novgorod, where the patrician elements tended to side with Lithuania. In 1471 Novgorod was obliged to renounce the alliance of Lithuania and to pay tribute. After a second war, in 1478, Novgorod's independence was ended and the troublesome upper classes were deported to central Russia. In 1494 Ivan drove out the German merchants and closed the Hanseatic Kontor. Thus he acquired the huge territory of Novgorod, extending eastward to the Urals. Indirectly he greatly reduced the danger of Lithuanian interference. The annexation of Tver (1485) put an end to the most formidable rival of Moscow.

1472. Marriage of Ivan with Zoe (Sophia), niece of the last Greek emperor of Constantinople. This was arranged by the pope in the hope of bringing the Russians into the Roman Church, but all efforts in that direction failed. The marriage was of importance in establishing the claim of Russian rulers to be the successors of the Greek emperors and the protectors of Orthodox Christianity (theory of the Three Romes, of which Moscow was to be the third and last). It also served to introduce into Moscow the Byzantine conception of the autocrat (Ivan took the title of *Tsar*, i.e. Caesar) and the practice of court ceremonial. Rebuilding of the grand ducal palace (Kremlin) with the assistance of Italian architects brought in by Zoe. The court hierarchy (precedence in rank of princes and nobles, etc.)

1480. Ivan threw off the Tatar yoke after a last Tatar advance on Moscow. Ivan avoided open warfare, but took advantage of the dissension among the Tatars. The Khan of the Crimea (Mench Girai) became his ally against the Lithuanians.

1492. Invasion of Poland by dynasties and Poland. A second invasion (1501) led to the conclusion of peace in 1503, which brought Russia many of the border territories of White Russia and Little Russia. Moscow had by this time become an important factor in European affairs and enjoyed a considerable prestige. Resumption of active diplomatic relations with western countries (Cont. p. 415)

d. HUNGARY, 1301-1490

At the beginning of the 14th century Hungary was already an essentially feudal country, in which the great magnates and the bishops, richly endowed with land

ruled as virtually independent potentates ("little kings"), while the lower nobility, organized in the *Comitats* (provincial governments), had, to a large degree, control of the administration. The nobility, freed of taxation, was responsible for defense, but acted only as it saw fit.

1301-1308. The extinction of the Arpad dynasty led to a period of conflict, during which Czech, German, and Italian parties each attempted to put their candidates on the throne. Wenceslas, son of the King of Bohemia, only thirteen years old, was first elevated, but could not maintain himself. The same fate befell Otto of Bavaria.

1308-1342. CHARLES I (Charles Robert of Anjou), a grandson of Mary, the daughter of Stephen V, was elected and founded the brilliant and successful Anjou line. Charles established his capital at Visegrad and introduced Italian chivalry and western influences. After 13 years of effort he succeeded in subduing the "little kings" of whom Mathias of Csak and Ladislas of Transylvania were the most powerful. Recognizing the hopelessness of suppressing the nobility entirely, he regulated its position and obliged it to furnish specified contingents to the army. Regulation of taxation (first direct tax); encouragement of towns and trade. Charles left the royal power well entrenched, but only as part of an avowedly feudal order.

1342-1382. LOUIS (the Great), the son of Charles, a patron of learning who established a brilliant court at Buda. He attempted to solidify the position of his house in Naples and embarked on a successful expedition to Italy to avenge the murder of his brother Andrew (1347). In conjunction with Genoa he carried on a long struggle with Venice, which ended in the **Peace of 1381**: Venice ceded Dalmatia and paid tribute. In the east the Hungarian power made itself felt throughout the Balkans. Serbia, Wallachia, and Moldavia recognized the suzerainty of Louis; foundation of the border districts (*banats*) south of the Danube and the Save, as protection against the Turkish advance. War against the Turks. Hungarian victory in northern Bulgaria (1356).

1370. Louis became King of Poland but paid little attention to his new obligations. In Hungary he continued the work of his father, the *puszta* (1351) restricted the freedom of the great magnates to dispose of their property.

1382-1385. Mary of Anjou, queen She was married to Sigismund of Luxemburg, who became guardian of the kingdom. His position was challenged

Charles of Durazzo and Naples, who had many adherents, especially in southern Hungary and Croatia.

1336-1386. Charles II (of Naples). He was assassinated after a very brief reign, which led to a new revolt in Croatia.

1387-1437. SIGISMUND (of Luxemburg), who became German Emperor in 1410 and King of Bohemia in 1436. His reign marked a great decline in the royal power, due in large measure to Sigismund's constant absence from the country and his practice of selling royal domains in order to get money for his far-reaching schemes elsewhere. In general Sigismund relied on the towns and lesser nobility against the great magnates (who imprisoned him for four months in 1401). Hence the grant of ever greater rights to the Comitats.

1396. The disastrous crusade of Nicopolis against the Turks (p. 326). Loss of Dalmatia to the Venetians. Hussite invasions of Hungary, resulting from Sigismund's attempts to gain the Bohemian throne.

1437-1439. Albrecht of Hapsburg, son-in-law of Sigismund, also German Emperor and King of Bohemia. He was obliged to sign far-reaching capitulations (nobles not obliged to fight beyond the frontiers).

1437. First victory of John Hunyadi over the Turks. Hunyadi was a powerful frontier lord of uncertain origin.

1440-1444. Vladislav I (Vladislav VI of Poland), a weak ruler, whose reign was distinguished chiefly by the continued victories of Hunyadi (1443). Crusade against the Turks.

1444, Nov. 10. Disaster at Varna and death of Vladislav.

1444-1457. Ladislas V, the son of Albert of Hapsburg, also King of Bohemia. He was only four years old at his accession and Hunyadi was therefore appointed governor of the kingdom until 1452.

1456. Crusade against the Turks, preached by John of Capistrano and led by Hunyadi. The Turks were turned back from the siege of Belgrade, but Hunyadi died in the same year.

1458-1490. MATHIAS CORVINUS (*the Just*), the son of John Hunyadi and one of the greatest of the Hungarian kings. He was fifteen at his election, but soon distinguished himself as a soldier, statesman and patron of art and learning.

Intelligent, firm, crafty, yet just and noble, he re-established the power of the crown and made Hungary the dominant power in central Europe, if only for the brief space of his reign. He once again broke the power of the oligarchs and drew on the support of the lesser nobility. Development of a central administration; regulation and increase of the taxes. Great wealth and luxury of the court. The *Bibliotheca Corvina*, consisting of more than 10,000 manuscripts and books, many beautifully illuminated by Italian artists. Mathias the patron of Renaissance learning. Famous law code (1486). Creation of a standing army (*Black Troop*), composed first of Bohemian, Moravian, and Silesian mercenaries. This gave Mathias one of the most effective fighting forces in the Europe of his day. Mathias' aims: to secure the Bohemian throne and ultimately the empire and then to direct a united central Europe against the Turks. Long struggles against George Podiebrad of Bohemia ended with George's death in 1471, after Mathias had been proclaimed King of Bohemia (1470). Equally prolonged struggle against Emperor Frederick III, who had been elected King of Hungary by a faction of nobles in 1439. Frederick was finally bought off (1462), but trouble continued. Mathias, disposing of much greater funds and forces than Frederick, conquered not only Silesia and Moravia, but also lower Austria. His capital established at Vienna (1485). Mathias died at 47, leaving Hungary the dominant state in central Europe and a decisive factor in European diplomacy. (Cont. p. 410)

e. THE SERBIAN STATES, 1276-1499

By the end of the 13th century the Serbian states, like others of eastern Europe, had evolved a strong secular and clerical anocracy which, to a large extent, controlled even the more outstanding rulers. In view of the general unsettlement of the law regarding succession and inheritance, the tendency toward dynastic conflict and territorial disruption was very pronounced. In the western Balkans the situation was further complicated by the rivalry of the western and eastern forms of Christianity, to say nothing of the persistence of the heretical Bogomil teaching, especially in Bosnia.

1276-1281. Dragutin, with the aid of the Hungarians, seized the Serbian throne from his father, Urosh I. Having been defeated in battle

by the Greek he abdicated after a short rule

1331-1332. Milyutin (*Stephen Urosh II*), the brother of Dragutin. He was a pious and yet dissolute ruler, but above all a political and religious opportunist. Taking full advantage of the growing weakness of the Byzantine Empire, he gradually extended his possessions in Macedonia along the Adriatic, and, in the north, toward the Danube and the Save.

1321-1331. Stephen Dechanski (*Stephen Urosh III*), the illegitimate son of the preceding. His reign was marked chiefly by the great victory of the Serbs over the Greeks and Bulgarians near Kustendil (Velbuzhde) in 1330. The Serbs now held most of the Vardar Valley.

1331-1355. STEPHEN DUSHAN (*Stephen Urosh IV*), the greatest of the Serbian rulers in the Middle Ages. Dushan began his career by deposing his father, who was strangled soon afterward. For most of his reign he attempted to maintain friendly relations with Hungary and Ragusa, in order to have a free hand to exploit the dynastic war in the Byzantine Empire between the Palaeologi and John Cantacuzene. By 1344 he had subjected all of Macedonia, Albania, Thessaly, and Epirus. His daughter was married to the Bulgarian tsar and Bulgaria was under Serbian supremacy.

1346. Dushan set up his capital at Skopje (Uskub) and proclaimed himself *Emperor of the Serbs, Greeks, Bulgars, and Albanians*. At the same time he set up a Serbian patriarchate at Peč (Ipek), for which he was anathematized by the Greek patriarch. Dushan established a court wholly Byzantine in character, with elaborate titles and ceremonial. In the years 1349-1354 he drew up his famous law code (*Zabonnik*), which gives an invaluable picture of Serbian conditions and culture at the time.

1349. Attack upon Dushan by the ruler of Bosnia. This led to the invasion of Bosnia by the Serbs, who found much support among the Bogomils, resentful of the Catholic proclivities of their rulers. The conquest of Bosnia was not completed because of Dushan's diversion elsewhere.

1353. Dushan defeated Louis of Hungary, who had been instigated by the pope to lead a Catholic crusade. The Serbs now acquired Belgrade.

1355. Dushan died at the age of 46 as he was en route to Constantinople. Thus perished his hope of succeeding to the imperial throne and consolidating the Bal-

kan in the face of the growing power of the Ottoman Turks (p. 325).

1355-1371. Stephen Urosh V, a weak ruler who was faced, from the outset, by the disruptive ambitions of his uncle Simeon and other powerful magnates. He was the last of the Nemanyid house.

1358. Hungary obtained most of Dalmatia, after defeating Venice. Ragusa became a Hungarian protectorate.

1371. Battle of the Maritza River, in which the Turks, having settled in Thrace defeated a combination of Serbian lords.

1371 Zeta (Montenegro) became a separate principality under the Balsha family (until 1421).

1371-1389. Lazar I, of the Hrebeljanovich family, became *Prince of Serbia*.

1375 The Greek patriarch finally recognized the Patriarchate of Peč.

1376. TVRTKO I, Lord of Bosnia from 1353-1391, proclaimed himself *King of Serbia and Bosnia*, taking over parts of western Serbia and controlling most of the Adriatic coast, excepting Zara and Ragusa. Tvrtko was the greatest of the Bosnian rulers and made his state for a time the strongest Slavic state in the Balkans.

1389, June 20 (traditional June 15). **BATTLE OF KOSSOVO**, a decisive date in all Balkan history. Prince Lazar, at the head of a coalition of Serbs, Bosnians, Albanians, and Wallachians, attempted to stop the advance of the Turks under Murad I. Murad was killed by a Serb who posed as a traitor, but his son Bayazid won a victory. Lazar was captured and killed, due to the reputed desertion of Vuk Brankovich. Henceforth Serbia was a vassal state of the Turks.

1389-1427. STEPHEN LAZAREVICH, the son of Lazar I. He was a literary person, but without an able statesman. During the early years of his reign he loyally supported the Turks, being present with his forces at the battles of Nicopolis (1396) and Angora (1402). In return the Turks recognized him as *Despot of Serbia*, and supported him against Hungary and other enemies.

1391. Death of Tvrtko I of Bosnia; gradual disintegration of the Bosnian Kingdom.

1392. Venice acquired Durazzo, beginning the process of establishment on the Dalmatian and Albanian coasts. Scutari was acquired in 1396, and when, in 1420, Venice secured Cattaro, she pos-

possessed practically all the fortified coast-lands.

1393. Hungary recovered Croatia and Dalmatia from the Bosnian Kingdom. Hungarian campaigns against Bosnia itself continued for years, until the native elements in 1416 called in the Turks.

1427-1456. **GEORGE BRANKOVICH**, the nephew of Stephen Lazarevich, Despot of Serbia. He built himself a new capital at Semendria (Smederovo) on the Danube and attempted with Hungarian support, to hold his own against the Turks. This policy led to a Turk invasion (1439) and conquest of the country the Hungarians, however, saving Belgrade. But in 1444 Brankovich, with the aid of John Hunyadi (p. 318), recovered his possessions and the Serbian state was recognized in the Treaty of Szegedin. Thereafter Brankovich deserted Hunyadi and tried to maintain himself through close relations with the Turks.

1456-1458. **Lazar III**, the son of George Brankovich. On his death he left his kingdom to

1458-1459. Stephen Tomasevich, the heir to the Bosnian throne. Stephen, as a Roman Catholic, was much disliked by the Serbs, who consequently offered less resistance to the Turks.

1459. The Turks definitively conquered and incorporated Serbia with the empire.

1463. The Turks overran and conquered Bosnia.

1483. Turkish conquest of Herzegovina (Hun).

1499. Conquest of Zeta (Montenegro) by the Turks.

f. THE EASTERN EMPIRE, 1261-1453

After the recapture of Constantinople by the Greeks in 1261 the Empire of the Palaeologi was still a relatively small domain, consisting of the former Nicæan Empire the city of Constantinople and its immediate surroundings, the coastal part of Thrace, southern Macedonia with Thessalonica, the islands of Imbros, Samothrace, Lesbos, and Rhodes. In Anatolia the northeastern part was still held by the Greek Empire of Trebizond, which in the course of the 13th century had managed to hold a balance between the Seljuk Turks and the Mongols and had become the great entrepôt of the eastern trade coming to the Black Sea by way of Persia and Armenia. The city and the court reached its

highest prosperity and brilliance under the Emperor **Alexius II** (1297-1330), whose reign was followed by a period of dynastic and factional struggle, marked by unbearable degeneracy and cruelty. The reign of John Alexius III (1330-1390) marked a second period of splendor, but the 15th century was one of decline. The empire came to an end with the Ottoman conquest in 1461 (last ruler, David, 1458-1461).

The European territories of the earlier empire were divided between the Greek Despotate of Epirus and the Greek Duchy of Neopatra (Thessaly, Locris), the Latin Duchy of Athens, the Latin Principality of Achaia, and the Venetian Duchy of the Archipelago.

1261-1282. **MICHAEL VIII** (*Palaeologus*).

He was the ablest of the Palaeologi, a man who devoted himself to the restoration of Byzantine authority throughout the Balkan area, persisting despite many setbacks.

1261. Michael established a foothold in the southeastern part of the Peloponnese (Morea), which was widely expanded in the ensuing period. Mistra (Misthra) became the capital of a flourishing principality and one of the great centers of late-Byzantine culture.

1262. Michael II of Epirus was forced to recognize the suzerainty of the Constantinople emperor. In a series of campaigns much of the despotate was regained for the empire (Jannina taken, 1265).

1264-1265. Constant raids of the Bulgars into Thrace led to a formidable campaign against them and the reconquest of part of Macedonia.

1266. **Charles of Anjou** became king of Sicily. He made an alliance with Baldwin II, the last Latin emperor, and, through the marriage of his son with the heiress of the Villehardouins, extended his authority over Achaia. He soon became the most formidable opponent of the Greeks, for by the Treaty of Viterbo (1267) he took over the claims of Baldwin II.

1267. Michael permitted the Genoese to establish themselves at Galata, across from Constantinople. This was part of his policy of encouraging the Genoese at the expense of the Venetians, to whom, however, he had to grant privileges also (1268).

1271. Death of Michael II of Epirus. Charles of Anjou had already taken Corfu (1267) and now undertook the conquest of the Epiran coast, the essential base for any advance on Thessalonica and

Constantinople Duizzo was taken in 1272 John Angelus driven out of Epirus, set up as Lord of Neopatria (to 1295) Nicephorus I was the titular ruler of a much-reduced Epirot state (to 1296) Charles of Anjou proclaimed himself King of Albania and entered into alliance with the Serbs, who had begun the construction of a large state by advancing down the Vardar Valley

1274. THE COUNCIL OF LYON.

Michael, in order to escape from the Angevin danger, accepted the Roman creed and the primacy of the pope, thus effecting the reunion with Rome. This move purely political in intent, met with vigorous resistance on the part of the Orthodox Greek clergy and in the long run only served to accentuate the antagonism of Greek and Latin.

1274.* Campaigns of Michael against the Angevins in Epirus. These cam-

paigns were carried on year after year, with varying success

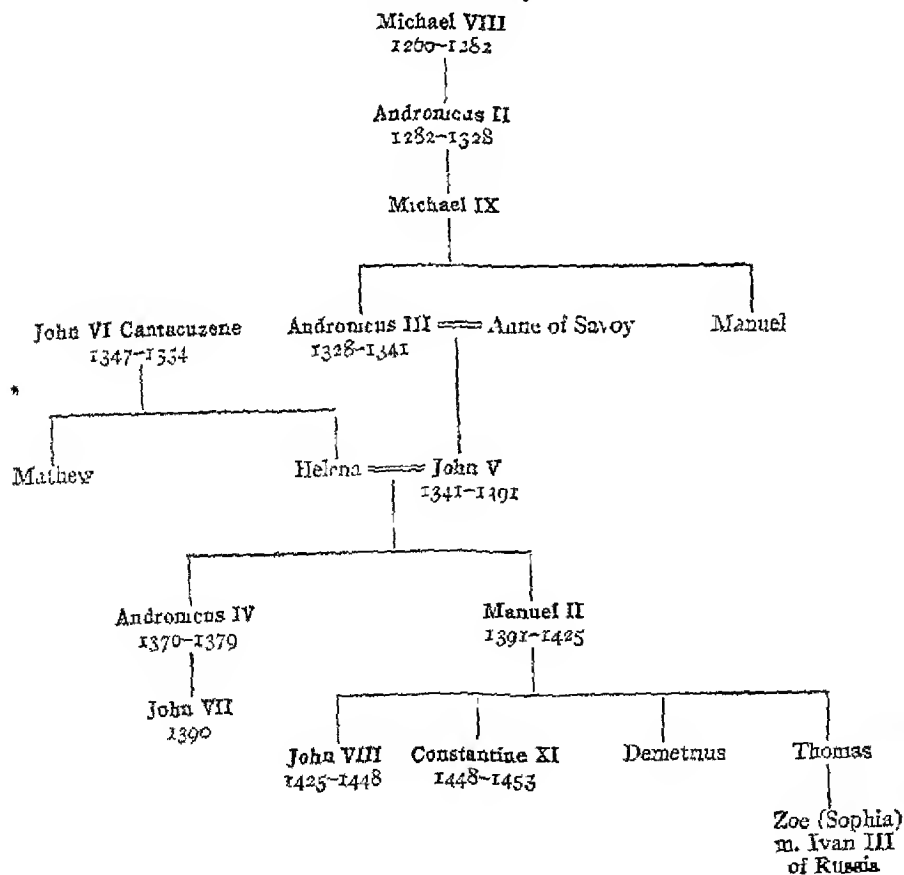
1278. The death of William of Villehardouin, Prince of Achaia, gave the Greeks an opportunity to expand their holding in the south-eastern part.

1281. Michael VIII won a great victory over the Angevins at Berat. Thereupon Charles made an alliance with the papacy and with Venice, with which the Serbs and Bulgars were associated. Michael in reply effected a rapprochement with Peter of Aragon.

1282. The Sicilian Vespers (p. 290). This blow at the Angevin power in Sicily served to relieve the pressure on the Greek Empire

1282-1328. ANDRONICUS II, the son of Michael, a learned, pious, but weak ruler, whose first move was to give up the hated union

The Palaeologi



- with Rome and conciliate the Orthodox clergy
- 1285.** Venice deserted the Angevin alliance and made a ten-year peace with the Greeks
- 1295-1320.** **MICHAEL IX**, son of Andronicus, co-emperor with his father
- 1296.** The Serbs, continuing their advance, conquered western Macedonia and northern Albania. Andronicus was obliged to recognize these losses (1298)
- 1302.** Peace between the Angevins and the Aragonese. Andronicus, once again exposed to Angevin ambition, engaged Roger de Flor and 6000 Catalan mercenaries (the *Catalan Company*) to fight against the Italians. They raised havoc at Constantinople, where 3000 Italians are said to have been killed in the disorders
- 1304.** The Catalans repulsed an attack of the Turks on Philadelphia, but they then turned and attacked Constantinople (1305-1307), without being able to take it
- 1305.** Murder of Roger de Flor. The Catalan Company became a veritable scourge, roaming through Thrace and Macedonia and laying the country waste.
- 1311.** The Catalans, having advanced into Greece, took the Duchy of Athens, where they set up a dynasty of their own
- 1321-1328.** Civil war between the emperor and his grandson Andronicus. In the course of the struggle much of the empire was devastated
- 1325.** Andronicus was obliged to accept his grandson as co-emperor
- 1326. RISE OF THE OTTOMAN TURKS** in northwestern Anatolia. In 1326 they took Brusa from the Greeks, and in 1328 Nicomedia (p. 325)
- 1328-1341. ANDRONICUS III**, the grandson of Andronicus II, who finally forced the emperor's abdication (d. 1332). Andronicus III was a frivolous and irresponsible ruler, wholly unequal to the great problems presented by the rise of the Turkish and Serb powers (Sultan Orkhan, 1326-1359, Tsar Stephen Dushan, 1331-1355)
- 1329.** The Greeks managed to take the important island of Chios from the Genoese
- 1330.** The Serbs defeated the Bulgars in a decisive battle and put an end to the Bulgar power
- 1334-1335.** Andronicus conqu d Thes-
- saly and part of Epirus from the despot, John II Orsini.
- 1336.** The Greeks reconquered Lesbos
- 1340.** Stephen Dushan, having conquered the Albanian coastal territory (as far as Valona) from the Angevins, drove the Greeks out of the interior and took Janina
- 1341-1376.** **JOHN V**, the son of Andronicus III, ascended the throne as a child, under the regency of his mother, Anna of Savoy
- 1341-1347. CIVIL WAR IN THE EMPIRE.** John Cantacuzene, supported by the aristocratic elements, set himself up as a rival emperor. John V was supported by the popular elements. In the ensuing war much of Thrace and Macedonia was ravaged. The war proved to be the undoing of the empire, since both sides treely called in Serbs or Turks to support them
- 1341-1351. THE HESYCHAST CONTROVERSY** in the Greek Church which added to the confusion. The controversy was really a conflict between the mystic teachings emanating from the monasteries of Mt Athos (founded 962 ff.) and the rationalism of the clergy. The Hesychasts (*Zealots*) supported Cantacuzene and were victorious with him. In the interval the dispute led to a great popular, almost socialistic rising in Thessalonica, where the extremists set up an almost independent state (1342-1347).
- 1343.** The Venetians, taking advantage of the civil war, seized Smyrna
- 1346.** Stephen Dushan was crowned Emperor of the Serbs and the Greeks and made preparations to seize Constantinople and replace the Greek dynasty
- 1347.** Cantacuzene managed to take Constantinople, through treachery
- 1347-1354. JOHN VI (Cantacuzene)**, sole emperor. He made his son Manuel despot of the Morea (1348). The Serbs held all of Macedonia
- 1351.** Stephen Dushan besieged Thessalonica
- 1353.** The Ottoman Turks, called in by Cantacuzene, defeated the Serbs
- 1354.** The Turks established themselves in Europe, at Gallipoli, thus beginning their phenomenal career of expansion (p. 325).
- 1355.** John V took Constantinople and forced the abdication of Cantacuzene (d. 1383). At the same time Dushan, having taken Adrianople, was advancing on the capital. His sudden death (1355)

led to the disintegration of the Serb Empire and to the removal of a great threat to the Greeks. On the other hand, it left the Christians an easier prey to the advancing Turks.

- 1365** The Turks, having overrun Thrace, took Adrianople, which became their capital.
- 1366** John V, who had been captured by Tsar Shishman of Bulgaria, was liberated by his cousin, Amadeo of Savoy.
- 1369** John V appeared before the pope at Avignon and agreed to union of the churches, in order to secure the aid of the west against the Turks.
- 1376-1379.** **ANDRONICUS IV**, the son of John V, who dethroned his father with the aid of the Genoese.
- 1379-1391.** John V, supported by the Turks, managed to recover his throne.
- 1386.** The Venetians recovered Corfu, which they held until 1797.
- 1388** The Venetians purchased Argos and Nauplia.
- 1389.** Battle of Kossovo (p. 319). End of the great Serb Empire.
- 1390.** John VII, a grandson of John V, deposed the latter, but after a few months the old emperor was restored by his second son, Manuel.
- 1391-1425.** **MANUEL II**, an able ruler in a hopeless position. By this time the empire had been reduced to the city of Constantinople, the city of Thessalonica, and the province of Morea. The Turks held Thrace and Macedonia.
- 1391-1395.** The Turks, under Bayazid I, blockaded Constantinople, and only the Christian crusade that ended in the disastrous battle of Nicopolis (1396) gave the Greeks some respite.
- 1397** Bayazid attacked Constantinople, which was valiantly defended by Marshal Boucicault. This time the advance of the Tatars under Timur distracted the Turks. The defeat and capture of Bayazid in the battle of Angora (1402), led to a period of confusion and dynastic war among the Turks.
- 1422** The Turks again attacked Constantinople, because of Mameluk's support of the Turkish pretender Mustapha, against Murad II.
- 1423.** The Venetians bought the city of Thessalonica.

1425-1448 **JOHN VIII**, the son of Manuel, whose position was, from the outset, desperate.

1428. Constantine and Thomas Palaeologus, brothers of the emperor, conquered Frankish Morea, with the exception of the Venetian ports. In these last years the Morea was the most extensive and valuable part of the empire.

1430. The Turks took Thessalonica from the Venetians.

1439. THE COUNCIL OF FLORENCE

John VIII, having traveled to Italy, once again accepted the union with Rome and the papal primacy. As on earlier occasions this step raised a storm of opposition among the Greeks and to some extent facilitated the Turk conquests.

1444 A second crusade from the west ended in disaster when the Turks won a decisive victory at Varna.

1446. The Turks frustrated an attempt of the Greeks to expand from the Morea into central Greece. Corinth fell into Turkish hands.

1448-1453. **CONSTANTINE XI**, the last Byzantine emperor.

1453 The siege and capture of Constantinople by Mohammed the Conqueror (p. 326). End of Eastern Empire after a thousand years of existence.

1460. Conquest of the Morea by the Turks. End of the rule of the Palaeologi in Greece.

1461 Conquest of the Empire of Trebizond, the last Greek state, by the Turks.

BYZANTINE CULTURE in the time of the Palaeologi. The territorial and political decline of the empire was accompanied by an extraordinary cultural revival, analogous to the Renaissance in Italy. The schools of Constantinople flourished and produced a group of outstanding scholars (philosophy: Planudes, Plethon, Bessarion). In theology the dominant current was one of mysticism (Gregory Palamas and the *Hesychasts*, George Scholarius). Historical writing reached a high plane in the work of John Cantacuzene, Nicephorus Gregoras, and, in the last years of the empire, of Phrantzes, Ducas, and Chalcocondylas. Art, especially painting, was distinctly humanized and three different schools (Constantinople, Macedonia, and Crete) cast a flood of splendor over the closing years of the empire. Mistra, the capital of the Morean province, became in the early 15th century the center of a revived Greek national feeling and a home of scholars and artists.



Conquests of the

Ottoman Turks, 1418



8 THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE; 1300-1481

The presence of the Turks in central Asia can be traced back to at least the 6th century AD (Orchon inscriptions, dealing with the period 550-650). These Turks, of the Oghuz family, were conquered by the Uighurs in 743 and continued under their rule until 840 when they in turn were conquered by the Kirghiz, coming from the west. In the 9th and 10th centuries the Turks were converted to Islam, and in the 11th century, having pushed their advance into southeastern Russia and Iran began to attack the Byzantine Empire. The Seljuks, a branch of the Turks, took Baghdad in 1055, and in the following two centuries built up an imposing empire in Anatolia and the Middle East (p. 251).

1243. The Mongols defeated the Seljuks at Kosedagh. Anatolia under Mongol suzerainty, disintegration of the Seljuk Empire in Anatolia, appearance of local dynasties in many places, especially along the Aegean coast.

1289. Traditional date of the death of Ertogrul, half-legendary leader of a Turkish tribe serving as frontier guards on the border of the Byzantine Empire.

1290-1326 OSMAN (Othman) I, traditional founder of the Ottoman dynasty. He continued the work of his father, but gradually extended his territory at the expense of the Byzantine Empire which was weakened by the transfer of many of its frontier guards to the Balkans. The Turks were almost certainly more civilized and less nomadic than has generally been supposed. There is evidence to show that Osman had at his command well-organized forces (Agha, a type of semi-religious and possibly mercantile as well as military society). But the Turkish advance seems to have taken the form of gradual infiltration more than outright conquest.

1317-1326. Siege of Brusa by the Ottoman Turks. The town was finally starved into submission.

1326-1359. ORKHAN I, the first well-authenticated ruler and obviously the organizer of the empire.

1329. The Turks defeated a Byzantine force under Andronicus III at Maltepe.

1331. Nicæa taken by the Turks.

1337 or 1338. Nicomedia (Ismid) taken by the Turks.

1346. The Ottomans first crossed into Europe, called in by the Emperor

John Cantacuzene, to support his claims against the Empress Anna. Orkhan married Theodora daughter of Cantacuzene.

1349. The Turks again called in by Cantacuzene, to aid him against the Serbian conqueror, Stephen Dušan.

1354. First settlement of the Turks in Europe (Tzzympé, on Gallipoli). as a result of a third appeal by Cantacuzene for aid. They spread rapidly through Thrace. On Orkhan's death the state was already well-organized (first Ottoman coins) and the Turkish ruler was able to dictate to the Byzantine emperors.

1359-1389 MURAD I

1356. Adrianople taken by the Turks, who soon made it their capital (1366), replacing Brusa. Organization of the Jamissary corps (date uncertain) composed of captives taken in war, and later of levies of Christian children.

1365. Ragusa made a commercial treaty with the Turks, paying tribute.

1366. Crusade of Amadeus of Savoy. He took Gallipoli, but was soon obliged to abandon it. Victory of Louis of Hungary near Vidin.

1369-1372. Conquest of Bulgaria to the Balkan Mountains. Shishman, ruler of Bulgaria, became a vassal of the Turks.

1371. Defeat of the Serbs by the Turks at Cernomen on the Maritza River; conquest of Macedonia by the Turks. Raids into Albania and Greece. Continued interference of the Turks in Byzantine affairs.

1385. Capture of Sofia by the Turks.

1386. Capture of Nish. Lazar of Serbia became a Turkish vassal.

1387. Geroa made a treaty with Murad.

1388. Venice made a treaty with the Turks.

1389, June 20 (June 15 traditional). BATTLE OF KOSSOVO. Murad defeated a coalition of Serbs, Bulgars, Bosnians, Wallachians, and Albanians. Lazar was killed in battle, Murad assassinated just after it, by a Serb.

1389-1402. BAYAZID I. He began his career by having his brother Yakub strangled. The Serbs were treated leniently and Bayazid turned his attention to Anatolia.

1391. Invasion of Karamania (the leading Anatolian emirate) by Bayazid, who conquered part of it. Several of the other emirates peacefully absorbed. By 1395 the Ottoman Empire extended east to Sivas.

- 1391-1398** First siege of Constantinople by the Turks. Bayazid made and unmade emperors and extracted a heavy tribute.
- 1396. CRUSADE OF NICOPOLIS**, led by Sigismund of Hungary, supported by Balkan rulers and by French, German, and English knights, as well as by the Roman and Avignon popes. Venice and Genoa negotiated with both sides. The knights assembled with great pomp at Buda and proceeded along the Danube to Nicopolis, pillaging and slaying. On Sept. 25 they met the Turks about four miles south of Nicopolis. The knights ignored all advice and pressed forward, after an initial success they were completely overwhelmed and many captured. Forces were about 20,000 on each side.
- 1397.** Invasion of Greece by the Turks, who advanced as far as Corinth, though they did not take Athens.
- 1400.** Invasion of Anatolia by the Mongols under Timur (p. 330). They took Sivas. Provocative attitude of Bayazid.
- 1402, July 20 BATTLE OF ANGORA** (Ankara). Bayazid, deserted by most of his Turkish vassals, was completely defeated and captured. Timur restored many of the Turkish emirs and advanced to Nicaea and Brusa. The Ottoman Empire on the verge of dissolution. Dispute of Bayazid's sons for the succession.
- 1403.** Mohammed defeated his brother Musa and became sultan of the remaining Asiatic possessions (retirement of Timur from Anatolia, 1403). Suleiman became sultan of the European territory.
- 1405.** Suleiman crossed to Anatolia and drove Mohammed into the mountains. Most of the emirs reinstated by Timur were reduced to obedience.
- 1406.** On Suleiman's return to Europe, Mohammed regained control in Anatolia. He sent his brother Musa to Wallachia to attack Suleiman from the north.
- 1410.** Musa took Adrianople, but was defeated by Suleiman.
- 1411.** Suleiman, having returned to Anatolia, was captured and strangled. His place in Europe was taken by Musa.
- 1413.** Mohammed crossed to Europe, defeated and killed Musa, and re-established his power over the whole empire.
- 1413-1421. MOHAMMED I (the Restorer).** He devoted most of his energy to consolidating his authority.
- 1416.** First war with Venice, due chiefly to Turkish activity in the Aegean. The Doge Loredano destroyed a Turkish fleet off Gallipoli, whereupon Mohammed wisely made peace.
- 1421-1451 MURAD II.**
- 1422.** Mustafa, a supposed son of Bayazid supported by the Greek emperor, Manuel II, defeated Murad's troops near Adrianople but failed to get any support from Anatolia. He was ultimately captured and executed. Murad, in revenge, began to besiege Constantinople, but soon gave up the attempt.
- 1423.** The Venetians took over Saloniki from the Greeks, as part of a plan of co-operation against the Turks.
- 1425-1430.** War between Venice and the Turks. A Turkish fleet ravaged the Aegean stations of Venice, and in 1430 the Turks took Saloniki. They then conquered most of Albania and Epirus. The Venetians, having become involved in war with Milan, were forced to make peace.
- 1442.** The Turks, having invaded Hungary, were defeated by John Hunyadi, a frontier lord of uncertain origin, most famous of the fighters against the Turks.
- 1443.** Crusade against the Turks, instigated by the pope and composed of Hungary, Poland, Bosnia, Wallachia, and Serbia. The crusaders, led by Hunyadi, took Nish and advanced to Sofia. Murad thereupon made the ten-year Truce of Szeged, with Vladislav of Hungary, by it Serbia was freed and Wallachia abandoned to Hungary.
- 1444.** Murad voluntarily abdicated in favor of his fourteen-year-old son, Mohammed. The Hungarians, encouraged by the pope, thereupon broke the truce and renewed the crusade (Sept.). They advanced through Bulgaria to Varna, where they were to meet the ships of Venice that were to carry them to Constantinople. But the Venetians stayed at Gallipoli and did not even prevent Murad from crossing from Anatolia. Murad resumed the throne and on Nov. 10 completely defeated the crusaders at Varna (Vladislav killed).
- 1448, Oct. 17.** Second battle of Kossovo. Murad defeated Hunyadi, who had again invaded Serbia.
- 1451-1481. MOHAMMED II (the Conqueror).** He was only 21 when he succeeded his father, but seems to have been unusually well-educated and, like others of the early sultans, a man of pronounced intellectual tastes. From the very outset he devoted his attention to the

capture of Constantinople the center of the struggle against Turkish rule.

1452 Mohammed completed the Castle of Europe (*Rumeli Hisari*) at the narrowest point of the Bosphorus, opposite the older Castle of Asia (*Anadolou Hisari*). This assured freedom of passage between Anatolia and Europe and at the same time controlled the supplies of Constantinople. Its erection led to war with the Byzantine emperor, Constantine.

1453, Feb.-May. SIEGE OF CONSTANTINOPLE, at that time largely depopulated and very poor. Constantine had only some 10,000 men at his command and was unpopular because of his efforts to reunite the eastern and western churches. He received some aid from the Venetians and Genoese, but his chief asset was the tremendous wall-system of the city. The Turks concentrated between 100,000 and 150,000 men outside the city. They had a substantial fleet, but this was shut out from the Golden Horn by an iron chain. Most important was the heavy artillery, built by a Hungarian renegade, Urban for Mohammed. The walls were continually bombarded, but the defenders managed to close the breaches. Finally Mohammed had some 70 light ships dragged overland from the Bosphorus to the Golden Horn. These forced the defenders to divide their attention. On May 29 the Turks delivered a great attack on the Romanos Gate and forced an entry. Constantine was killed in the mêlée and many of the defenders escaped on Venetian and Genoese ships. The city was given up to pillage for three days. Mohammed tried at first to populate it with Turks, but had indifferent success. He then repopulated it with Greeks and other Christians, chiefly artisans, and gave the Greek patriarch, Gennadios, considerable civil as well as religious authority over the Orthodox inhabitants throughout the empire. Somewhat later similar authority over the Armenian community was given to the Armenian patriarch (millet system). Constantinople (Istanbul) soon became the Turkish capital. Churches were transformed into mosques (notably Santa Sophia) and palaces built (Old Serai, completed 1458; New Serai, completed 1467). The seat of government became more firmly fixed and Mohammed evolved a complete administrative system, with an elaborate system of training (palace school, slave household). Much of the court ceremonial was borrowed from the Greeks, though the institutions were fundamentally Turk.

1456. Mohammed besieged Belgrade, after repeated raids by Hunyadi, who

relieved the city, but died soon afterward (Aug.). Thereupon Mohammed subdued Serbia (1456-1458) and Bosnia and Herzegovina (1458-1467), where many of the upper classes accepted Islam. In the same years the Turkish fleet took most of the Genoese stations in the Aegean and an army overran the Morea, deposing the last Palaeologus.

1456-1463. The Albanian campaign, against Scanderbeg (George Castriota), a condottiere educated at the Turkish court, who had escaped in 1443. Scanderbeg was in the pay of Alphonse of Aragon-Naples until 1458 and thereafter in the pay of Venice. He was repeatedly driven back by the Turks, but from his stronghold at Kruia he maintained a vigorous resistance. When he died (1467), Albania was quickly conquered and incorporated in the empire.

1463-1479. FIRST GREAT WAR BETWEEN THE TURKS AND VENICE, resulting from interference with trade and from the Turkish threat to the Venetian stations on the Greek and Albanian coasts. The humanist pope, Aeneas Silvius (Pius II), attempted to organize a crusade and Hungary joined Venice. But only a small and miscellaneous force was collected at Ancona.

1468. The Turks raided Dalmatia and invaded Croatia.

1470, July. The Turks, with a huge fleet and landing force, conquered Negroponte (Euboea) from the Venetians.

1473. The Venetians induced the Persians to attack the Turks, while they raided the Anatolian coasts. The Persians were defeated at Erzingan.

1477-1478. The Turks took Kruia, Alessio, and Drivasto in Albania. Scutari was twice besieged and Turkish raiders reached the very outskirts of Venice.

1479. Peace between Venice and the Turks. The Venetians gave up Scutari and their Albanian stations, but they kept Dulcigno, Antivari, and Durazzo; they gave up Negroponte and Lemnos and paid an annual tribute of 10,000 ducats for permission to trade in the Black Sea.

1480. A Turkish force occupied Otranto in southern Italy.

1480-1481. Siege of Rhodes, held by the Knights of St. John, last Christian outpost in the eastern Mediterranean. Mohammed died before the siege could be successfully completed.

(Cont. p. 420.)

D. AFRICA DURING THE MIDDLE AGES

AFRICA

(For the history of Mediterranean Africa see pp. 262-263)

The earliest history of Africa is shrouded in obscurity. In the north the original inhabitants appear to have been of some white stock (the ancestors of the Berbers), while south of the Sahara the country was populated by Negritos, a small race of Negroes of whom the Pygmies, Bushmen, and Hottentots are probably the descendants. The Negritos were evidently pushed to the northwest and south by a great invasion (possibly c. 30,000 B.C.) of a larger Negro race arriving from the other side of the Indian Ocean and landing on the central part of the eastern coast. From the newcomers the Bantu derive. A second great invasion from overseas followed and pushed the Negritos even farther to the west, though there seems to have been much intermixture in the region north of the equator, forming the various Sudanese tribes. In all likelihood there was also a good deal of infiltration of Semitic stocks into the northern part of the continent, both west (Carthage) and east (Syria). The earlier inhabitants were chiefly hunters, but the Negro invaders brought pastoral and agricultural pursuits and introduced polished stone and iron. Very few monuments of the earlier ages have survived. The great stone ruins (Zimbabwe) of Rhodesia have been variously dated from the 10th century B.C. to the 15th century A.D. They may have been built by the Bantu, though the weight of expert opinion seems to favor the Sabaeans from the Yemen (10th century A.D.) or Dravidians from India.

c. 1st to 6th century A.D. The Kingdom of Axum in northern Ethiopia and in southwestern Arabia (obelisks of Axum), direct contact with the Greek world, conversion of the country to Christianity by Frumentius (early 4th century). The connection with the Christian east was broken by the Arab conquests (640-).

640-710. CONQUEST OF NORTH AFRICA BY THE ARABS, beginning with Egypt and spreading westward (p. 184 et seq.)

c. 980. Settlement of Arabs from Muscat and Persians from Shiraz and

Bushire along the eastern coast, south as far as Cape Corrientes. They founded the towns of Mogdishu, Melinde, Mom-basa, Kiliwa (Quiloa), and Sofala and traded with the natives of the interior in slaves, ivory, and gold that was shipped to India and Arabia.

10th century. Apogee of the Kingdom of Ghana (capital Kumbi), which had been founded in the 4th century, supposedly by people of Semitic extraction. It extended from near the Atlantic coast almost to Timbuktu and was an essentially Negro state consisting of a group of federated tribes with a surprisingly developed culture (visits of the Arabs Ibn Haukil and Masudi in the late 10th century). There appears to have been an active trade with Morocco by way of the Sahara.

1054. Beginning of the Islamic conquest of West Africa by the Almoravids under Abdallah ben Yassin. Several of the native dynasties were converted, though the masses appear to have retained their original beliefs.

1076. The Almoravids pillaged Kumbi, the capital of Ghana, which never entirely recovered. Its decline was evidently hastened by the growing barrenness of the region. The breakup of the Ghana Empire led to the formation (11th century) of succession states (Daura, which existed till 1754), Soso, the two Mossi states south of the bend of the Niger, and Manding. The ruler of Manding was converted to Islam, as was also the ruler of Songhay, a great empire which sprang up (c. 900) on the middle Niger and came to divide West Africa with Manding.

1203. Sumanguru, greatest of the rulers of Soso, plundered Kumbi.

1224. Sumanguru conquered and annexed Manding.

1235. Sun Diata, powerful king of the Mandingos, defeated the ruler of Soso and re-established his independence. In 1240 he destroyed Kumbi.

1307-1332. Apogee of the Mandingo Empire under Gongo Musa, who extended his dominions until they covered

most of West Africa, after defeating and subjecting the Songhay Empire (1325). Brilliant culture of Timbuktu (founded 12th cent.).

1352-1353. The great Arab traveler, Ibn Batuta, having crossed the Sahara, visited the Mandingo Empire, of which he wrote a description.

1432. The Tuaregs from the Sahara took and sacked Timbuktu.

1483. The Portuguese explorers first rounded Cape Bojador, beginning a long series of expeditions along the coast (p. 363).

1468. The Songhay ruler recaptured Timbuktu from the Tuaregs.

1471. The Portuguese founded the post of San Jorge d'el Mina on the Guinea coast.

1487. The Portuguese reached Timbuktu overland from the coast.

1490. The Portuguese ascended the Congo for about 200 miles and converted the King of the Congo Empire (14th cent.-). They established a post at São Salvador and exercised a wide influence in the region until the end of the 16th century.

1492-1529. Greatness of the Songhay Empire under Askia Mohammed, who conquered the larger part of the Mandingo Empire and pushed his conquests to the east beyond the Niger. Visit of Leo Africanus (1507).

1505-1507. The Portuguese took Sofala and Kilwa from the Arabs and founded Mozambique. In 1513 they ascended the Zambezi, establishing posts at Sena and Tete. Missionaries probably penetrated much of the hinterland, but details are not known.

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E. ASIA DURING THE MIDDLE AGES

1. PERSIA

- 1349.** The end of the troubled reign of Nushirwan was also the end of the dynasty of the Il-Khans of Persia. They were succeeded by
- 1336-1411.** The Jalayrs, in Iraq and Azerbaijan,
- 1313-1393.** The Muzaffarids in Fars, Kurman and Kurdistan,
- 1337-1381.** The Sarbadarids in Khorasan. The Muzaffarids and Sarbadarids were overthrown by Timur, and the Jalayrs by
- 1378-1469.** The Turkomans of the Black Sheep, who ruled Azerbaijan and Armenia until they were succeeded by
- 1387-1502.** The Turkomans of the White Sheep.
- 1369-1405.** **TIMUR** (*Tamerlane*), the vizier of the Mongol Chagatay Khan Suyurghatmish, usurped the power of his master. Between the years 1380 and 1387 he overran Khorasan, Jurjan, Mazandaran, Siyistan, Afghanistan, Fars, Azerbaijan, and Kurdistan. In 1391 he completely defeated Toqtamish, the Khan of the Golden Horde
- 1393.** Timur took Baghdad and reduced Mesopotamia. After an invasion of India (1397) he marched against Anatolia and routed the Ottoman Turks at Angora (p. 326). The empire of the Timurids (until 1500) was soon restricted to Transoxania and eastern Persia.
- 1404-1447.** **SHAH RUKH**, fourth son of Timur, whose reign was noted for its splendor. He carried on successful campaigns against Kara Yusuf, head of the Turkoman dynasty of the Black Sheep (1390-1420), who ruled Azerbaijan, Shirvan and other regions of the northwest. Kara Yusuf was obliged to recognize the suzerainty of the Timurids, though Kara Yusuf and his successor, Kara Iskender (1420-1438), and Jehan Shah (1435-1467) were effective rulers of all northwestern Persia. Jehan Shah for a brief period (1458) held even Herat
- 1452-1469.** Abu Said, last of the Timurid dynasty. This period was marked by the great expansion of the Turkoman power under
- 1453-1478.** **UZUN HASAN**, of the dynasty of the White Sheep. This dynasty had established itself under Hasan's grandfather, Osman Bug Kara Iluk (d. 1435) and ruled the territory about Diabekr. Hasan rapidly extended his authority over Armenia and Kurdistan. His defeat by the Ottoman Turks (1461) turned his attention eastward, and led to five large-scale raids into Georgia.
- 1467.** Uzun Hasan defeated and killed Jehan Shah of the Black Sheep and took over his territories
- 1469.** Uzun defeated, captured, and killed Abu Said the Timurid sultan, who had marched against him. Thereupon Hasan became effective ruler of Armenia, Kurdistan, Azerbaijan, and Iran. He entered with Venice into a treaty directed against the Ottoman Turks, but the artillery that was sent him never reached him, and he was defeated by Mohammed II in
- 1473.** The battle of Ersindjan. On his death he was succeeded by his son
- 1478-1490.** **JAQUB**, who continued his father's policies and gave the country firm and enlightened rule
- 1492-1497.** **RUSTAM SHAH**, who succeeded to the throne after a severe dynastic conflict. His death was followed by confusion and by the emergence of the new Salavid dynasty, under Shah Ismail

(Cont p. 526)

2. INDIA

a. NORTHERN INDIA

The White Huns or Hephthalites, a branch of the Mongol Juan-juan who dominated Central Asia (407-55) had oc-

cupied Bactria (425) and, after defeat by Sassanid Bahram Gor (428), Gandhara. Victory over Sassanid Peroz (484) freed them for raids from the Punjab into Hindustan.

c. 500-502 Toramana ruled as far as Eran (E Malwa, inscrip. of his 1st year)

502-c. 528 Mikirakula from Sialkot controlled Gwalior (inscrip. of 15th year) and Kashmir. Bhanugupta probably expelled him from Eran (510). Yasodharman of Mandasor (?) boasts (533) of victory over him. Although the Huns in Central Asia were crushed by Turks and Sassanians (553-567), their chiefs kept rank in the Punjab and Rajputana till the 11th century.

606-647 HARSHA, fourth King of Thaneshwar north of Delhi (new era Oct 606), succeeded his brother-in-law as King of Kanauj (royal title 612), and quickly conquered an empire across northern India to which he left no heir. He received an embassy (643) from the Emperor T'ang T'ai-tsung. A poet and dramatist, he patronized men of letters. He is well known through Bana's poetic romance *Harsha-charita*, which is fashionably studded with recondite vocabulary drawn from lexicons of rare words, and by the *Hsi yü chi* (*Record of Western Lands*) of his guest, the pilgrim Hsuan-tsang, whose exact observations in India (630-641) have given priceless guidance to modern archaeology. Hsuan-tsang too, after long study at Nalanda, brought together in his *Yinyang-matratasiddhi*, the classic anthology of texts and comment of the Yogachara or Dharmalakshana school.

Tantrism meanwhile sought to secure for its adepts in magic arts, through esoteric texts (*mantra*) and charms, rapid attainment of Buddhahood or at least supernatural powers. Partial syncretism with Sivaism led to a cult of Vairochana and various new divinities, largely terrible or erotic. Spells (*dharmas*) appear early (Ch trans 4th cent.), but the *Panjabhrama* is in part the work of Sukyantra (c. 850). Tantrism seems to have flourished chiefly along the northern borderland. Buddhism, however, progressively disappeared from India from the 9th century, lingering in Bengal and Bihar until the Moslem conquest (1202). It was largely absorbed by Hinduism or united with it.

647. A second Chinese embassy, under Wang Hsuan-tse, having been attacked by a usurper on a local throne (T'ibet, north of Patna?), secured 7000 troops from Amshuverman, King of Nepal, and 1200 from his son-in-law Srong-tsan-gampo, King of Tibet, captured the malefactor, and hailed him to Changan (648).

c. 730-c. 740 YASOV

King of

Kanauj, an author, patronized the Prakrit poet Vakpatiraja and Bhavabhuta, a Sanskrit dramatist ranked by Indian criticism next to Kalidasa.

c. 725-1197. The Pala Buddhist kings ruled Bengal (till c. 1125) and Magadha. Leading rulers Dharmapala (c. 770-c. 833), and Devapala (c. 883-c. 891), who endowed a monastery founded at Nalanda by Balaputradeva, King of Sumatra.

c. 1125-c. 1225? Senas from the Carnatic gradually advanced from North Orissa into Bengal.

c. 1169-c. 1199. Lakshmanasena patronized Jayadeva, whose *Gita-govinda*, mystic call to love of Krishna, is hailed by Keats as a world masterpiece in union of sound with sense. Tightening of caste restrictions was accompanied by origin of *kulinism*: prohibition of marriage of any girl below her own caste, which led to infanticide; and rise in caste by marriage to men of higher caste, which led to polygamy of high-caste husbands to collect dowries.

b. WESTERN INDIA

Western India, thanks to many impregnable fortresses in Rajputana, was usually divided among local dynasties from the time of the Gupta power to the advent of the Mohammedans.

c. 430-766. A dynasty of Maitrakas, foreigners of the Rajput type, usually independent at Valabhi in Surashtra, created a Buddhist scholastic center which rivaled Nalanda. Their gifts reveal that Buddhist images were honored with *pūja* of the kind devoted to Hindu gods.

c. 550-861. THE GURJARA horde of central Asiatic nomads established a dynasty of twelve kings at Mandor in central Rajputana. Two retired to Jain contemplation, and a third to self-starvation.

712- Arab raids from Sind devastated Gujerat and Broach (724-743) and finally shattered the Maitraka dynasty (766).

c. 740-1036. THE GURJARA-PRATHIHARA DYNASTY, by uniting much of northern India, excluded the Moslems till the end of the 10th century. Prominent early rulers were Nagabhata I (c. 740-c. 760), who defeated the Arabs, Vatsaraja (c. 772-c. 800), and Nagabhata II (c. 800-836), conqueror of Kanauj.

746-c. 974. The Chapas (or Chapotkatas), a Gurjara clan, founded Anahilapura (or Anandapura, 746) the

principal city of western India until the 15th century.

631-1310. A Dravidian dynasty of Chandelias (in present Bundelkhand) built numerous Vaishnava temples, notably at Khajuraho, under Yasovarman (c. 930-954) and Dhanga (954-1002).

c. 840-c. 890. Mihira, or Bhoja, devoted to Vishnu and the Sun, ruled from the Sutlej to the Narmada, but failed to subdue Kashmir.

c. 950-c. 1200. The Paramaras of Dhara, near Indore, were known for two rulers: Munja (974-c. 994) who invaded the Deccan, and Bhoja (c. 1018-1000), author of books on astronomy, poetics and architecture, and founder of a Sanskrit college.

c. 974-c. 1240. The Chalukya or Solanki Rajput clan, led by Mularaja (known dates 974-995) ruled from Anahillapura over Surashtra and Mt. Abu.

977-1186. The Ghaznavid (Yamini) dynasty ruled at Ghazni and Lahore. It was founded by Subuktigin (977-997), a Turkish slave converted to Islam, who extended his rule from the Oxus to the Indus and broke the power of a Hindu confederacy which included King Jaipal of Bhatinda, the Gurjara Pratihara King of Kanauj, and the Chandella King Dhanga.

998-1030. MAHMUD OF GHAZNI made 17 plundering raids into the Punjab (defeat of Jaipal, 1001) to Kangra (1009), Mathura and Kanauj (1018-19), Gwalior (1022), and Somnath (1024-26). Vast destruction, pillage of immensely rich Hindu temples, and wholesale massacre resulted only in enrichment of Ghazni and annexation of the Punjab. Ghazni, heir to the rich artistic heritage of the Samanids of northeastern Persia, was now one of the most brilliant capitals of the Islamic world. Alberuni (973-1048) of Khiva, the leading scientist of his time, followed Mahmud to the Punjab, learned Sanskrit, and wrote the invaluable *Tahkik-i Hind (Inquiry into India)*.

1093-1143. The Chalukya ruler, Jayasimha Siddharaja, a patron of letters, although himself a Saiva, organized disputations on philosophy and religion, and favored a Jain monk, Hemachandra, who converted and dominated.

1143-1172. Kumarapala. As a good Jain, he decreed respect for life (*ahimsa*), prohibited alcohol, dice, and animal fights, and rescinded a law for confiscation of property of widows without sons. He also built (c. 1169) a new edifice

about the Sana temple of Somanatha which had been reconstructed by Bhimadeva I (1022-1062) after destruction by the Moslems.

1151-1206. The Shansabari Persian Princes of Ghar (Ghor) having burned Ghazni (1151), drove the Yamini to the Punjab and deposed them there (1180).

1172-1176. Ajayapala, a Saiva reactionary, ordered the massacre of Jains and sack of their temples until he was assassinated, when Jain rule was restored under a major of the palace whose descendants displaced the dynasty (c. 1240).

Two Jain temples at Mt. Abu are the work of a governor, Vimala Saha (1031), and a minister Tejapala (1230). Built of white marble with a profusion of ornamented colonnades, brackets, and elaborately carved ceilings, they are the most elegant version of the northern or Indo-Aryan architectural style.

Kashmir, already (c. 100 A.D.) an important home of the Sarvastivadin Buddhist sect, remained a center for Buddhist studies (till the 10th cent. degenerate before the Moslem conquest, 1340) and of Sanskrit literature (until today). Its history from c. 700 is rather fully known through the *Rajatarangini* of Kalhana (c. 1100) the sole early Indian historian who consulted literary sources and inscriptions but accepted even absurd tradition without criticism.

1175-1206. Mohammed of Ghor, Mu'izz-ud-Din, undertook conquest of Hindustan by capture of Multan and Uch. He ruled from Ghazni as governor for his elder brother, Ghiyas-ud-Din Mohammed, whom he succeeded as ruler of Ghor (1203).

1192. A battle at Taraori (14 m. from Thanesar) decisively crushed a new Hindu confederacy led by the Chauhan king of Ajmer and Delhi. Cumbersome traditional tactics, disunited command, and caste restrictions handicapped the Hindu armies in conflict with the mounted archers from the northwest. Victory led to occupation of Delhi (1193), to conquest of Bihar where the organized Buddhist community was extinguished (c. 1197), Bengal (c. 1200), and the Chandella state in Bundelkhand. Mohammed appointed Kutub-ud-din Aibak, a slave from Turkestan, viceroy of his Indian conquests, and left him full discretion (1192, confirmed 1195).

1206-1266. A dynasty of slave kings, the first of six to rule at Delhi (until 1546), was founded by Aibak (killed playing polo. 1210).

The numerically weak early Moslem rule in India effected a temporary Hindu troops and civilian agents, welcome allegiance of Hindu landholders, and afford their native subjects much the same limited protection (including tacit religious toleration) and justice to which they were accustomed. Rebels, both Hindu and Moslem, were slaughtered with ruthless barbarity.

1211-1236 Shams-ud-din Iltutmish, ablest slave and son-in-law of Ashak, succeeded to his lands in the Ganges Valley only, but recovered the upper Punjab (1217) Bengal (1225), the lower Punjab with Sind (1228) and Gwalior after a long siege (Feb-Dec 1232). He advanced to sack Ujjain (1234).

1229. He was invested as Sultan of India by the Abbasid Caliph of Baghdad.

Islamic architects brought to India a developed tradition of a spacious, light, and airy prayer chamber covered by arch, vault, and dome, erected with aid of concrete and mortar and ornamented solely with color and flat linear, usually conventional, decoration. This formula was applied with recognition of local structural styles and of the excellence of Hindu ornamental design. Ashak built at Delhi (1193-96) with the spoils of 27 temples a mosque of Hindu appearance to which he added (1198) an Islamic screen of arches framed with Indian carving. He began (before 1200) a tower for call to prayer, which was finished (1231-32) and named *Qutb Minor* to honor a Moslem saint (d. 1235) by Iltutmish who also enlarged the mosque in strictly Islamic style.

Upon the death of Iltutmish actual power passed to a group of 40 Turks who divided all others save that of sultan, and controlled the succession.

1266-1290. A new dynasty at Delhi was founded by Balban (d. 1287), a slave purchased by Iltutmish (1233); made chamberlain (1242), father-in-law and lieutenant (1249-52 and 1255-66) of King Muhammad (1246-1266). Balban as king, aided by an effective army and corps of royal scribes, repressed the 40 nobles, ended highway robbery in south and east, and rebellion in Bengal. His son repelled the Mongols established in Gujarat (since 1221), but was killed by them (1285).

The tomb of Balban is the first structure in India built with true arches instead of Hindu corbelling.

1290-1320. The Khalji dynasty of Delhi was founded by Firuz of the Khalji tribe of Turks, long resident among the Afghans. Senile mildness led him to

release in Bengal 1000 Thugs (murderers in honor of Siva's consort Kali) captured in Delhi.

1296-1316. Ala-ud-din, his nephew and murderer, bought allegiance with booty secured by surprise attack upon Devagiri in Maharashtra (1294-95). He consolidated the empire.

1297. He conquered and despoiled Gujarat with its rich port Cambay. Frequent revolts prompted a program of repression which included espionage, confiscation of wealth (esp. of Hindus), endowments and tax-exempt lands; prohibition of liquor and all social gatherings. Mongol invasions (1299 and 1303) led to

1303. Decrees which by fixing low prices for all products permitted reduction of army pay and increase of strength to nearly 500,000 cavalry. Mongol armies were destroyed (1304 and 1306) and expeditions, usually led by a eunuch, Kaur, entitled Malik Naib, effected.

1305-1313. Conquest of Malwa (1305) and the Deccan: Devagiri (1306-1307), annexed 1313, Warangal (1308), the Hoyasala capital at Dvarasamudra and that of the Pandyas at Madura (1310-11), and the central Deccan (1313), with enormous treasure.

The *Ala Darwaza* (1311), southern gateway of a proposed vast enlargement of Ashak's mosque, represents the finest ornamental architecture of the early Delhi sultanate, fortunately continued in Gujarat. *Amir Khusraw* (1253-1325), greatest Indian poet to write in Persian, was son of a Turk who had fled before Jenghiz Khan to Patiala. He was prolific as court poet to Ala-ud-din and later in religious retirement. Another excellent Persian poet of Delhi was *Hasan-i-Dihlavi*, who died at Daulatabad (1338).

1320-1413. The Tughluk dynasty was founded by the old but vigorous Ghiyas-ud-din Tughluk (d. 1325), a pure Turk who boasted 29 victories over the Mongols. He reduced to provincial status Warangal (1323) and eastern Bengal (1324). He encouraged agriculture, corrected abuses in tax collection, and perfected a postal system by which runners covered 200 miles a day. At Multan he erected a splendid octagonal tomb of Persian character for the saint, Rukn-i-Alam. Increasing austerity marked the architecture of his house.

1325-1351. Mohammed Tughluk hastened to the throne by deliberate parricide. A half-mad military genius, his administrative measures were warped and defeated by his own unwisdom, inordinate

pride, inflexibility, and ferocious indiscriminate cruelty. Revolt of a cousin in the Deccan (1326) led to

1327. Transfer of the capital to Devagiri, renamed *Daulatabad*, handsomely rebuilt with European feudal fortifications about an impregnable rock citadel. As a punitive measure

1329. All remaining citizens of Delhi were forced to move thither. He raised taxes so high in the Doab as to force rebellion and then destroyed both fields and cultivators

1330. Emission of copper fiat money equivalent to the silver *tanga* of 140 grains failed because of easy counterfeiting

1334. Ibn Batuta, a Moorish traveler, was welcomed with fantastic gifts like other foreigners who might help in world conquest. He left on a mission to China (1342).

1334-1378 Madura revolted under a Moslem dynasty, ended by Vijayanagar.

1337-38. An army of 100,000 horse, sent through Kangra into the Himalaya to conquer Tibet and China, was destroyed by rains, disease, and hill-men, and with its resources needed to avert

1338 Loss of Bengal to the house of Balban, independent until 1539. Moslem architects used at Gaur, its capital, local brick and terra cotta to build, e.g., the bold Dakhil Gateway (1459-74?)

1340. Mohammed sought recognition (received 1344) from the caliph in Egypt. He vainly tried to restore prosperity by redistributing, and appointing undertakers to supervise fixed (unscientific) crop rotation, and to maintain a mounted militia. Increased penal severity culminated when he began

1344-45 Wholesale extermination of his centurions, revenue collectors who usually failed to meet his quotas. Rebellion begun by them in Gujarat led to permanent loss of the whole South

1346-1589. Shah Mirza (1346-1349) founded a Moslem dynasty in Kashmir. He substituted the usual land tax of one-sixth for the extortionate rates of the Hindu kings.

1347-1527. The Bahmani dynasty, founded by rebels against Mohammed Tughluk, who elected Bahman Shah (1347-1348) at first ruled four provinces Gul-

barga, Daubatabad, Berar and Bidar. The capital at Gulbarga and many other fortresses were built or strengthened with European science to serve against Gujarat, Malwa, and Khandesh in the northwest, the Gonds, Orissa, and Telengana in the north-east, and Vijayanagar in the south

1351-1358 Firuz Tughluk (b. 1305) restored rational administration. He exacted tribute from Orissa (1360), Kangra (1361), and Sind (1303). He refused to disturb the Bahmani kingdom of the Deccan, its tributary Warangal, or the rebels from it, the Khans of Khandesh between the Tapti and Nerbada (independent 1382). He built several towns, notably Jaunpur north of Benares (1359), many mosques, palaces, hospitals, baths, tanks, canals, and bridges, but with cheap materials and little artistic quality. His successors were too weak to prevent further dissolution of the empire.

1358-1375 The Bahmani Mohammed I gave lasting organization to the government of the new dynasty

1363-1364. Warangal was forced to cede Golconda, with much treasure

1367 Victory of the Bahmani over immense but ineffectual armies of Vijayanagar. It was the first of several successes and was won with artillery served by Europeans and Ottoman Turks. The subsequent massacre of 400,000 Hindus led to agreement to spare noncombatants. The Great Mosque at Gulbarga was completely roofed with domes

1392-1531 Malwa (formally independent in 1401) was ruled by the Ghuris and the Khaljis (1436). Hushang Shah (1405-1435) fortified the capital at Mandu above the Nerbada, and erected there the durbai hall *Hindola Mahall*, together with a great mosque. These buildings are impressive through structural design rather than surface ornament

1394-1479 Jaunpur, with Oudh, became independent under the Sharhi (eastern) dynasty, founded by the eunuch, Malik Sarvan, and his adopted sons, probably of African Negroid descent. The second ruler, Ibrahim Shah (1402-1436), was a cultured and liberal patron of learning

1396-1572. Gujarat prospered under a Moslem Rajput dynasty

1398-1399. INVASION OF TIMUR (*Tamerlane*) of Samarkand, who had already conquered Persia, Mesopotamia, and Afghanistan (p. 330). He desolated the whole Kingdom of Delhi. Crossing the Indus (Sept. 24) he marched 80 miles &

day for two days (Nov 6-7) to overtake fugitives at Bhatnagar, massacred 100,000 Hindu prisoners before Delhi (Dec 12), sacked the city (Dec 17), stormed Meerut (Jan. 9), and fought his way back along the Himalaya to the Indus (Mar 19)

1411-1442. Ahmad Shah built Ahmadabad as a capital and beautified it with the *Pin Darwaza* (Triple Gateway) and *Great Mosque*, one of the most imposing structures in the world

1414-1526. THE KINGDOM OF DELHI, reduced to the Jumna Valley, with tenuous control over the Punjab, was ruled by the Sayyids, who laid nebulous claim to Arab descent from the Prophet, but could collect their revenues only by force. Later the Afghan Bahlul Lodi (1451-1489) founded the Lodi dynasty

1420-1470. Zain-ul-Abidin, learned and tolerant, recalled the exiles, permitted Brahman rites, employed convicts on public works, and exacted communal responsibility for order

1422-1436 Ahmad Shah enrolled 3000 foreign mounted archers, who, like the Turks, Arabs, Mongols, and Persians, when employed as ministers earned by superior qualities and disdain the envy and hostility (massacre 1446) of the native-born Deccanis, Africans, and Muwallads, half-breed offspring of the latter

1429. Bidar, rebuilt under Persian decorative influence, became capital

1458-1511 Mahmud I, called *Bagarha* (*Two Forts*) because of his conquest of Ginnar (with Kathiawar, 1469-1470) and Champanir (near Baroda, 1483-1484), when 700 Hindu Rajputs preferred pitiful death (*ganjur*) to Islam. He built magnificently and in exquisite taste the Great Mosque at Champanir, the palace at Sirkhet, the step-well at Adalaj; and the pierced stone window-screens of Sidi Sayyid's mosque. The tiny Rani Supari mosque at Ahmanabad (1514) displays harmonious perfection of the ornamental style.

1463-1482. Mohammed III conquered the Konkani and Teligana to both coasts. He died at 28 of drink, the curse of nearly all his house, and of remorse at having slain (while drunk) his best minister, Mahmud Gawan, the builder of the large quadrangular college at Bidar.

1490 Ahmadnagar (1490-1633), Bijapur (1490-1686), and Berar (1490-1574) became in fact independent of Mahmud (1482-1518), the incompetent prisoner of his minister, Kasim Barid, whose dynasty mounted the throne of Bidar in 1527 (till 69

c. SOUTHERN INDIA

100-200. King Karikalan of early Tamil poems is credited with construction of a great irrigation dam on the Kaveri River, east of Trichinopoly

c. 300-888 The Pallava warrior dynasty of foreign (Pahlava?) origin, using Prakrit and later Sanskrit, held from Kañchi (near Madras) hegemony of the Deccan, which it disputed with the Chalukyas of Vatapi (550-753), the Rashtrakutas of Malkhed (753-973) and the Chalukyas of Vengi (811-1078)

c. 500-753. The first Chalukya dynasty in Maharashtra advanced from Aihole on the upper Kistna to near-by Vatapi (or Badami, c. 550) and to Banavasi (566-597) at the expense of the Kadambas. Construction of the earliest temples at Aihole was followed by that of Mahakutesvara (c. 525) and completion of the cave-temple to Vishnu at Vatapi (578)

c. 575. The Pallava Simhavisnu seized the Chola basin of the Kaveri, which his family held until after 812

c. 600-625 The Pallava Mahendravarman I, converted from Jainism to Saivism, destroyed a Jain temple, but dug the first (Saiva) cave-temples in the south (at Trichinopoly, Chingleput, etc.) From his reign date Buddhist monasteries (in part excavated) and *stupas* on the Samkaram Hills (near Vizagapatam)

609-642 The Chalukya Pulakesin II placed his brother on the throne of Vengi, where he ruled as viceroy (611-632), repulsed an attack by Harsha of Kannauj (c. 620), sent an embassy to Khosroes II of Persia (625), and enthroned a son, who headed a branch dynasty in Gujarat and Surat (c. 640-740). Hsuan-tsang (641) describes the prosperity of the country just before the Pallavas pillaged the capital (642), a disaster which was avenged by pillage of the Pallava capital, Kañchi, by Vikramaditya (c. 674)

611-c. 1078. The Eastern Chalukyas of Vengi (independent after 620-632), were continually at war with Kalinga on the north, the Rashtrakutas on the west, and the Pandyas on the south

c. 625-c. 645. The Pallava Narasimhavarman defeated Chalukya Pulakesin II (c. 642) and took Vatapi. He defeated also his southern neighbors and enthroned Manavalla in Ceylon (?). He improved the port of Mamallapuram, near Kañchi and cut there the first of the *rakhs* memo-

the ear-est monuments of the Dravidian style, also the cliff-relief depicting the descent of the River Ganges from Heaven

c. 675-c. 705 The Pallava Naresimhavarman II built in stone and brick the Shore temple at Mamalla, and the central shrine of the Kailasa temple at Kāñcī, completed by his son.

c. 700. Conversion of King Srimaravarman to Sivaism by Tirupana Sambandhar, the first of 63 *nayanmars* or Tamil saints, led the king to impale 8000 Jains at Madura in a single day, since celebrated by the Saivas. Another saint, Manikka Vasagar (9th cent.) wrote poems of his own religious experience which correspond to our *Psalms*. The Tamil Vaishnavas, too, had their saints, twelve *avars*, who also expressed emotional religion and whose works were collected c. 1000-1050.

733-746. The Chalukya Vikramaditya II thrice took Kāñcī, and distributed presents to the temples. He imported Tamil artists and his queen commissioned Gunda, "the best southern architect," to build the temple of Virupaksha. The frescoes of Ajanta caves 1 and 2 are believed to date from this period. So too the Saiva and Vaishnava sculptures of the Das Avatara cave-temple at Ellora.

c. 735-c. 800 Nandivarman II, a collateral kinsman twelve years of age, accepted the Pallava throne offered him by the ministers and elders, who defended him against rival claimants.

753-973. The Rashtrakuta dynasty of Canarese kings, already enthroned in North Berar (631) and in Gujerat (c. 700) was elevated to empire by Dantidurga, who soon overthrew the Chalukyas.

758-772. Rashtrakuta Krishnaraja I cut from the cliff and decorated with Saiva sculpture the Kailasamatha temple at Ellora to rival that of Kāñcī. To the same Canarese dynasty it not to the same reign belong the equally classic Saiva sculptures of the cave-temples at Elephanta (an island in Bombay harbor). The successors of Krishnaraja were Govinda II (779) and Dhruva (783), who defeated the Pallava Nandivarman II and the Gurjara Vatsaraja.

774-13th cent. The Eastern Gangas ruled Kuligat, waging constant war with the Chalukyas of Vengi and the Princes of Orissa.

c. 788-c. 850. Samkara of Malabar revitalized the Vedānta, creating an unobtrusively new but consistent synthesis

of Vedāntion, which he speciously traced to the *Upanishads* and to Bādarāyana, author of the *Brahma sutra*. His doctrine became accepted as orthodox Brahmanism. He taught a rigorous monism (*advaita*) which admits release for the soul only in union with *brahman* through the higher knowledge that the phenomenal world (and individual personality) do not exist save for those who think objectively. For those latter, however, engrossed in worldly phenomena (*maya*), he recognized that a simpler kind of knowledge was necessary, and for that he was a practical apostle of Sivaism. Although he denounced Buddhism he imitated its moral teaching by opposition to sectarian extravagance, its ecclesiastical strength by organization of an ascetic order for zealous youth (hitherto debauched till later life from religious activity). He founded four scholastic monasteries (*maths*) which still survive at Sringeri (Mysore), Puri (Orissa), Badarāthi (the Himalaya), and Dvārakā (western Kathiawar). Ramanujam (c. 1055-1137) of Kāñcī (Conjeevaram near Madras) also interpreted the Vedānta. For him souls are distinct from *brahman*, whose representatives they are, and from the material world with which they are entangled. It is through piety toward *Viṣṇu* and his saving grace that they may recover their divine nature.

c. 790. The Chalukya Vikramaditya II was defeated by the Rashtrakuta Dhruva (719-794).

794-813 Rashtrakuta Govinda III seized Malwa with Chitor from the Gurjaras, and enthroned his brother as head of a second Rashtrakuta dynasty in Gujerat (ill c. 900). He took from the Pallava (c. 800) tribute and territory as far as the Tungabhadra.

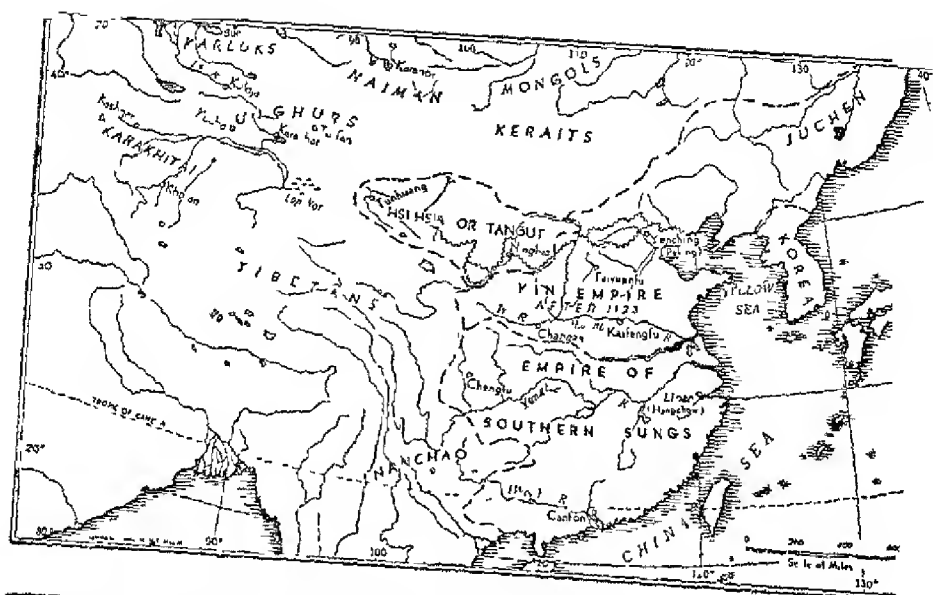
c. 812-844. Pallava Nandivarman III helped Govinda III to crown Sivamara II as Ganga King of Mysore. At the same time

c. 812- Pandya Varaguna I imposed suzerainty on the Pallavas.

817-877. Rashtrakuta Amoghavarsha I moved the capital from Nasik to Malkhed, the better to carry on war against the Vengi. He abdicated and died in saintly Jain fashion. The last of his line found death in Jain starvation (982).

c. 825-1212. The Yadavas, early suzerains of a score of petty vassal kings, occupied in turn three capitals (modern) Chandor and Sinnar (1069), both near Nasik, and the fortress of Devagiri (c. 1111) renamed Daulatabad (1327). They fell heir to the northern possessions of the Chalukyas of Kalyani.

- 843-1249.** The Silaharas, another petty dynasty, under Chalukya or Rashtrakuta suzerainty, provided forty-five kings in three different areas along the west coast north of Goa. The Parsis (Parsees), refugees in Kathiawar, had probably already reached Thana near Bombay during the 8th century.
- 844-888.** Gunaga Vijayaditya III fought successfully against western and northern enemies and by the defeat of the Pallava Aparajita and the Pandya Varaguna II helped the rising Chola to supersede both. His association of two brothers as kings-consort led ultimately to succession struggles which placed eight kings on the throne in ten years (918-927).
- c. 844-870.** Pallava Nripatungavarman recovered Tanjore and obtained the submission of Varaguna II (862-) and of Ganga Prithivipati I.
- c. 870-888.** Pallava Aparajitavarman, with Ganga Prithivipati, crushed Varaguna II, but was himself dethroned and killed by the Chola Aditya I. Numerous Pallava chiefs continued to rule locally. Perungina, in the Tamil South, claimed imperial titles for at least 31 years.
- 888-1267.** The Chola dynasty of Tamil kings from Tanjore, under Aditya I (870-c. 900), with the aid of the Chalukyas of Vengi, replaced the Pallavas at Kañchi. The Chola territory extended along the east coast from Telugu to the Pandya lands.
- 927-934.** A royal inscription is the earliest extant specimen of Telugu literature. It records the erection of a Saiva temple and sectarian hostel.
- 973-c. 1190.** The Chalukyas of Kalyani (near Bombay) were restored to power by Taila II (or Tailapa), who spent his reign fighting the Cholas and Paramaras.
- 985-1014.** Chola Rajaraja I acquired hegemony over the Deccan.
- 994.** Conquest of the Cheras and Pandyas justified the title *Three-crowned Chola*, marking the first historical union of the southern peninsula.
- 999.** The conquest of Vengi drove a usurper from the East Chalukyan throne and was extended (1000) to Kalinga.
- 1001-1004.** A successful invasion of Ceylon permitted assignment of Singhalese revenues to the Saiva Great Pagoda of Rajarajesvara which Rajaraja I built at Tanjore, the masterpiece of baroque Dravidian architecture. He also endowed a Buddhist monastery built at Negapatam by a king of Srivijaya (Sumatra).
- 1014-1042.** Rajendra Choladeva who had helped his father since 1002.
- 1014-1017.** A second invasion of Ceylon secured the regalia and treasure of the Pandya kings, so that a son of the Chola could be consecrated king of Pandya.
- 1024.** An invasion of Bengal enabled the Chola to assume a new title and establish a new capital near Trichinopoly.
- c. 1030.** By use of sea-power the Chola exacted tribute from Pegu, Malayur (Malay Peninsula), and the empire of Srivijaya.
- 1040-1068.** Rashtrakuta Somesvara I founded Kalyani, the capital, until c. 1156. He drowned himself with Jain rites in the Tungabhadra, a sacred river of the south.
- 1042-1052.** Chola Rajadhiraja I, who had aided his father since 1018. He was killed in battle at Koppam against Somesvara I of Kalyani.
- 1052-1070.** Chola Virarajendra defeated the Chalukyas and gave his daughter to Vikramaditya VI. He founded a vedic college and a hospital. His two sons fell into conflict and extinguished their line by assassination (1074).
- 1073-1327.** The Hoysalas, at first a petty dynasty, ruled at Dvarasamudra (Halbid) in Mysore.
- 1074-1267.** The Chalukya-Chola dynasty, founded by Rajendra, son and grandson of Chola princesses, King of Vengi (1070-), who took the vacant throne of Kañchi (1074) and thenceforth ruled Vengi through a viceroy. His authority was recognized by the Ganga King of Kalinga.
- 1075-1125.** Vikramaditya VI of Kalyani began a new era in place of the Saka era, but with small success. One of his many inscriptions is at Nagpur in the northern Deccan, while in the south one of his generals repelled the Hoysalas. His people enjoyed unwonted security. He built temples to Vishnu, but made gifts also to two Buddhist monasteries which must have been among the last in the south to withstand Hindu reaction and absorption. *Bahana of Kashmir*, in return for hospitality, a blue parasol, and an elephant, wrote the *Vikramanukachurita* in praise of his host.
- 1076-1147.** Anantavarman Codaganga extended his authority from the Ganges to the Godavari, and built at Puri (south of Cuttack) the temple of Jagannath (Vishnu) which, at first open to all Hindu castes, is now barred to fifteen. The g cat



CHINA
IN THE LAST HALF OF THE
TWELFTH CENTURY



INDIA
TO THE MOHAMMEDAN
CONQUEST

MAPS FROM STEIGER'S A HISTORY OF THE FAR EAST, USED BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHER
GINN AND COMPANY.

Sun temple, in form of a solar car, known as the *Black Pagoda*, at Konarak, may be earlier than its attribution to Ganga Narasimha (1238-1264).

1111-1141. *Buttadeva*, independent, fought successfully against Chola, Pandya, and Chera. As viceroy before accession he was converted from Jainism to Visnu by Ramanuja, at that time a refugee from Saiva persecution by the Cholas. He began construction at Belur and Halebid of temples in a distinctively ornate Hoysala style, featured especially by a high, richly carved plinth or stellate plan.

c. 1150-1323. The *Kakatiyas* reigned in the east at Kakati or Warangal between the Godavari and the Krishna. They held an important kingdom under Ganapati (1197-1259) and his daughter (1259-1288), whom Marco Polo knew.

c. 1156-1183. A revolt against the Rashtrakuta ruler Taila III (known dates 1150-1155) led to usurpation by a general who was soon assassinated by Basava, who was in turn compelled to commit suicide. Basava created and organized the *lingayat* sect of fanatical anti-Brahman worshippers of Siva under a phallic emblem. The movement at the outset appeared in the form of a religious and social (equalitarian) war.

1183. Taila's son Somesvara IV regained Kalyani, but was unable to resist the Hoysalas (last date 1189).

1292-1342. The Hoysala ruler Viraballala III inherited an empire comprising most of southern India.

1327. After sack of Halebid by Mohammed Tughlak, Viraballala moved his capital to Tiruvannamalai (South Arcot).

c. 1335-1565. *Vijayanagar* (present Hampi),

founded by two brothers from the region of Warangal, fought steadily against the Moslem sultans north of Kistna and Tungabhadra. It became an important center for Brahman studies and for Dravidian nationalism and art. Madhava wrote at Sringeri (c. 1380) the *Sarva darsana samgraha*, which remains the classic summary of the various Brahman philosophical points of view.

1520. Division of the Moslems into five rival sultanates (late 15th cent.) gave Krishnadeva (c. 1509-1529) a chance to win a victory over the Sultan of Bijapur.

1542-1565. Ramaraja sought to profit by further division of the Moslems but provoked a coalition which crushed him and razed Vijayanagar.

d. CEYLON

846. The capital was moved south to Polonnaruwa to escape Tamil invasions, which later culminated in

1001-1017. The two great invasions (1001-1004 and 1014-1017) by Chola Rajaraja and his son Rajendra.

1055-1120. Vijayabahu ruled prosperously despite further incursions (1046, 1055).

1164-1197. Parakramabahu I repelled the Tamils (1168), invaded Madura and united the two rival monasteries.

1225-1260. Parakramabahu II repelled two attacks (c. 1236 and c. 1256) by a King of Tambralinga (Ligor on the Straits of Malacca), with Pandya help.

1294. The king sent a relic of the Buddha to Kublai Khan. (Cont p. 530)

3. CHINA, 618-1471

618-907. THE T'ANG DYNASTY, founded by

618-626. LI YÜAN (T'ai Tsu) and his son Li Shih-mn. The T'ang used Loyang and Ch'ang-an as eastern and western capitals. Six institutions were in general retained. The central administrative organization remained essentially unchanged from this time until 1012. The emperor ruled through daily audience with a grand council composed of (1) heads of a secretariat and chancery, which for safety divided transaction of business (a feature later discarded); (2) representatives of the six ministries of civil office, finance, ceremonial, war, justice, and public works; and

(3) specially appointed dignitaries. The censorate and nine independent offices, notably a clan court and a criminal high court, together with three technical services including the national college and flood-prevention bureau, reported to him directly. Although the empire was divided into ten (627), later fifteen (733) districts for supervisory purposes, the prefectures (*chou*) depended directly from the central administration, the prefect being responsible for duties corresponding to those of the six ministries. Each prefecture sent an annual quota of candidates to join graduates of two state universities in civil-service examinations. These led to the eighth or

ninth bottom ranks in the official hierarchy. Appointment to a corresponding office depended on a further searching examination before each term until the sixth rank was reached. Promotion was based on performance.

627-649. The reign of T'AI TSUNG (Li Shih-min) is illustrious not alone because of the military conquests which established stimulating contacts with Iranian and Indian civilizations, but still more for the liberal, tolerant spirit of the emperor and his patronage of art and letters.

630. The Eastern Turks, who had attacked Ch'ang-an in 624 and 626, were crushed.

631-648. Chinese suzerainty was acknowledged by the petty states of western and eastern Turkestan. The Western Turks were divided and defeated (647).

635. A Nestorian missionary, A-lo-pen, was officially welcomed to Ch'ang-an, and given (638) both freedom of the empire and an imperial church at the capital.

641. A Chinese princess was married to the first King of Tibet, Srong-tsan-gam-po, and helped convert Tibet to Buddhism, later (after 749) modified by Padmasambhava towards Tantrism.

645. Hsuan-tsang, returned from a pilgrimage to India, recorded his precise observations, and headed a commission which translated 75 books in 1335 volumes, creating for the purpose a consistent system for transcription of Sanskrit. He introduced the scholastic doctrine of Vasubandhu (which still survives), that the visual universe is only a mental image. The Pure Land or Lotus School of Buddhism for the next seventy years enjoyed far more popular favor. Based on texts translated in the 2d and 5th centuries, it is called the *Short-Cut School* because it teaches direct salvation by faith in Amitabha and invocation of his name. Religious Taoism, fully organized on the Buddhist model, now also received imperial patronage on the ground that Lao-tzu, whose surname legend gives as Li, was the ancestor of the ruling house. A 4th century apocryphal text, *Hua Hu Ching*, which claims Lao-tzu to be a prior avatar of Buddha, was actively debated. It was proscribed (668) but again tolerated (696). Imperial commissions completed or newly compiled eight standard histories to bring the series down to date from the Three Kingdoms. Another prepared the first literary encyclopedia, *I Wen Lee Chiu*.

657-659. Dispersal of the Western Turks (T'u-chueh), some of whom eventually migrated across southern Russia to Hungary while others followed Mahmud or Ghazni to India.

671-695. I-ch'ang made the pilgrimage to India by sea, stopping to learn Sanskrit in Srivijaya (southeastern Sumatra), a state which became tributary (670-73), and remained powerful until the close of the 14th century.

684-704. Empress Wu temporarily altered the dynastic title to *Chow* (690-704), and decreed use of conspicuously deformed written characters.

712-756. HSÜAN TSUNG, popularly known as Ming Huang, ruled over a court of brilliant High Renaissance literary and artistic attainment. He founded the Academy of Letters (725) and established schools in every prefecture and district in the empire (738). Li Po (705-762) and Tu Fu (712-770) created and excelled in lyric verse. In painting, continuous composition was substituted for episodic treatment. Wu Tao-hsuan (c. 700-760) ranks foremost among figure-painters. Li Ssu-hsuan (651-c. 720) and Wang Wei (698-755) created two of the first and most influential landscape styles. Slackening of genuine religious enthusiasm is conspicuous alike in the tone of Buddhist votive inscriptions and in the monumental realism of the sculpture which becomes increasingly secular, then perfunctory. T'ang potters freely borrowed forms of Iranian flask and ewer, Indian ritual drinking vessel, and Greek amphora. They made these resplendent with new colors in soft lead glaze applied over slip with new technical versatility. From about this time dates probably also the first true porcelain with high-fired telapathic glaze. The Buddhists, too, now enlarged the seal and produced wood blocks for printing on paper (earliest extant printed book dated 808).

732. Manichaeism was condemned as perverse doctrine, but was permitted to Persians and Tokharians who had introduced it (694 and 719) and who were favored for their competence in astronomy and astrology.

738. The title *King* was conferred on a T'ai ruler who (730) united six principalities as Nan Chao with capital at Ta-li (741). After two disastrous efforts at conquest (750 and 754), the T'ang made peace (780-794), leaving the kings of Nan Chao full autonomy. They still had to be repelled, twice from Ch'eng-tu (829 and 874), once from Hanoi (863).

745. Uighur Turks overthrew the Eastern Turks and set up their own empire on the Orkhon, ruling from H. to Tibet and the Yellow River. Their *kaghan* was given a title and a Chinese princess (758).
747. Kao Hsien-chih led an army across the Pamirs and Hindukush, but
751. Defeat by the Arabs at Talas lost Turkestan to China.
- 751-790. Wu-kung made the pilgrimage to India through Central Asia on the eve of displacement of Buddhism by Islam.
755. Revolt of An Lu-shan, a Turkish adventurer who had been adopted by the emperor's favorite concubine, Yang Kuei-fei, and had united three military commands, plunged the empire into particularly sanguinary and destructive civil war.
- 756-767. The emperor fled to I-chou (renamed Ch'eng-tu) which was developed rapidly as a cultural center. He there abdicated in favor of his son. Despite gradual suppression of the rebellion by Kuo Tzu-i and Li Kuang-pi, power remained in hands of territorial military leaders.
- 762-763. The Uighur kaghan sacked the eastern capital at Loyang, then in rebel hands, but was himself there converted to Manichaeism, which became the Uighur state religion.
763. The Tibetans, by a surprise attack, sacked Ch'ang-an. Through fear of the Uighur, who tried to convert the T'ang, Manichaeans were allowed to build temples in the capitals (708) and seven other cities (771 and 807). The kaghans were given rich gifts of silk, and a princess (821).
- 840-846. Overthrow of the Uighur Empire by the Turkish Kirghiz and Karluk led to migration of many tribes from the Orkhon to the Tarim basin, where they carved out a second Uighur empire in which the Turkish language extinguished the Indo-European dialects.
- 841-846. The reign of Wu Tsung, under Taoist influence, was filled with persecution of Manichaeans (843), Buddhists, Nestorians, and Mazdeans (845). Buddhism alone was now naturalized and able to survive. The most prominent place in an epoch of increasing anarchy was taken by the Ch'an (Skt. *Dhyana*, Jap. *Zen*) sect which offered refuge in introspective contemplation. Bodhidharma, an aged Persian who had come to Loyang from India

prior to 334, was now hailed as famous founder of the school, although in fact he was still obscure as late as 728.

CULTURAL PROGRESS continued despite military alarms. Wei Pao was commanded (744) to prepare an authentic version of the *Canon of History* by collation of variant manuscripts. It was included together with all three competing rituals and all three commentaries on the *Annals*, among twelve classics which were cut in stone at Ch'ang-an (836-847). Han Yu (768-824) not only wrote excellent poetry, as did Po Chü-i (772-846), but created and set the classic model for the essay style. The first historical encyclopedia, the *T'ung Tien*, was compiled (766-801) by Tu Yu, and the practice of writing monographs on individual prefectures and districts was begun.

907-959. Five dynasties of short duration asserted imperial authority but seldom exercised it outside the Yellow River Basin. Later Liang (907-923), Later T'ang (923-936), Later Tsin (Chin) (936-947), Later Han (947-950), and Later Chou (951-960). Among ten competing secessionist states the most considerable were southern Han at Canton (904-971), and southern T'ang which from Nanking ruled much of the east and south (937-975).

932-953. Nine classics were first printed from wood blocks, as cheap substitute for stone engraving, at the Later T'ang capital at Loyang by Feng Tao, who had seen the process in Shu (Szechuan). The text was that of the stone inscriptions of 836-841.

907-1123. KHITAN MONGOLS under their dynastic founder Ye-lu A-pao-chi (907-926) conquered all Inner Mongolia, the Kingdom of Po Hai in the Liao Valley, and 16 northern districts of China. His suzerainty was recognized even by the Uighurs. His son Ye-lu Te-kuang (927-947) both helped set up the Later Tsin dynasty at Ta-hang (modern K'ai-feng) and destroyed it. He took Yen-chou (Peking) as his own southern capital (938), and adopted the Chinese dynastic name *Liao* with periodic reign-titles (947-1125).

960-1127. THE SUNG DYNASTY marks the advent of modernity, not only in governmental and social organization, but in thought, belief, literature, and art, not least in the diffusion of learning through print. It was an age of humanism, of scholar statesmen who were at once poets, artists, and philosophers. The first half of the dynasty is often distinguished as the Northern Sung (960-1127) when the capital

was at K'ai-feng, then variously called Ta Liang, more properly Pien-hang, or Pien-ching.

960-975. Chao K'uang-yin or (Sung) T'ai Tsu gradually restored unity and order under accustomed forms with the help of a paid army

965. The Annamese secured independence before South China could be subdued and shortly (c. 982) sacked the Cham capital Indrapura before Chinese pressure forced them to peace. Although the Chams (c. 1000) moved their capital south to Vijaya (Cha-ban, near Binh-quinh), the Annamese resumed the war (1043) and sacked it also

967. The emperor deliberately refused to invade the territory of the native kings of Nan Chao in Yunnan, a policy observed by his successors. He permitted temporary autonomy to the King of Wu Yueh (modern Chekiang) who had retained his throne (897-973) by pledging loyalty to each Chinese dynasty

972 ff. The *Buddhist* canon was printed in Szechuan by imperial order from 130,000 blocks. It was reprinted with additions in Fukien (1080-1104), and elsewhere thereafter

976-997. T'ai Tsung completed reunion of the empire (979), but was twice repulsed from Peking by the Liao (979 and 986).

997. Division of the empire into 15 provinces (*lu*) later extended to 18 (1023-31) and 23 (1078-85)

990-1227. The Western Hsia (Hsi Hsia) Kingdom of Tangut on the north-west frontier with capital at Ning-hsia appealed often to arms (996, 1001-1003, 1030-1042) despite grant of the imperial surname *Chao* and office (991, 997, 1000) and royal investiture (1044)

1004. An invasion by the Liao reached the Yellow River near Pien-Liang. They were granted annual tribute. These payments, increased in 1042 and the hire of a large standing army bade fair to bankrupt the treasury.

1006. Granaries for emergency relief were established in every prefecture. In 1009 grain so stored was valued at 15 million strings of cash.

1069-1074. WANG AN-SHIE (1021-1086) carried out a program of radical reform with the full confidence of Shen Tsung (1068-85), and in face of bitter opposition of conservative statesmen.

Through a new financial bureau (1060) he cut the budget 40% and raised salaries to make honesty possible for ordinary officials. To avoid excessive transport

costs and to control prices he empowered the chief transport officer to accept taxes in cash or kind, to sell from the granaries, and to buy in the cheapest market, using capital of 5 million strings of cash. Further to protect poor farmers against usurers and monopolists, loans of cash or grain were offered in spring against crop estimates to be repaid in autumn with interest of 2% a month (moderate in China). Ambitious officials forced these loans upon merchants and others who did not want them. Objection to both principle and administration of these measures, which were accompanied by alarming centralization of power and disregard for precedent, led to wholesale resignations and transfers of the best officials whose help alone might have made them successful. Conscript militia were organized (1070) and trained for police purposes and national defense. The standing army of over a million inefficient men was gradually cut in half. By 1076 the militia, volunteer guards, and border bowmen numbered over 7 million men. Cash assessments graded in proportion to property were substituted (1071) for compulsory public services which had borne too heavily upon thrifty rural families. The exemption of officials, clergy, and small families was reduced by half. Necessary local services were now performed by paid volunteer agents. State banking and barter offices were opened (1072) first at the capital and later in every prefecture, with the object of controlling prices for the popular benefit.

1074-1085. The reform program was continued, despite complaints of excessive cash levies and other malpractices, until the emperor's death, for a time (1075-1076) by Wang himself

1085-1093. Regency of the hostile grand dowager empress (under the reign title Yuan Yu) and recall of Ssu-ma Kuang, Su Shih, and the conservative faction to rescind the whole of the reform scheme (1084-1086). Extreme reaction in turn provoked reaction. On the death of his grandmother,

1093-1100. Chao Tsung again favored reform, as did his younger brother

1101-1125. Hu Tsung who permitted Ts'ai Ching to proscribe (1102) 98 of the Yuan-Yu partisans, finally (1104) 309 conservatives, living and dead, beheaded by Ssu-ma Kuang. Eventually much that was good in the measures of 1070 and 1071 was retained. Hui Tsung, himself an able painter, was an active patron of the arts and letters. He founded the imperial academy of painting, and sponsored catalogues

of his collections of painting and of archaic bronzes, some of which were obtained by excavation

The Northern Sung is the golden age of landscape painting, when compositions of majestic breadth and exquisite detail were rendered in monochrome and color on long rolls or broad panels of silk. Tung Yuan (late 10th cent.) and Kuo Hsi (c. 1020-90) combined mastery of continuous composition and linear technique with that of suggestion of atmosphere through gradations of ink-tone. Li Kung-hsi (c. 1040-1100) excelled in vigorous contrasts of light and shade of broad and delicate line and in airy architectural renderings in ruled and measured style. Mi Fei (1051-1107) used hardly any lines, building mountains and forests from graded accumulations of blobs of ink.

Scholarship flourished no less. Two great encyclopedias were compiled by imperial order, the *Pao Ping Yu Lun* (977-983) and the *T'se Lu Yuan Kwei* (1005-1013). Ou-yang Hsiu (1007-1072), a prominent statesman, prepared the *New History of the Sung*, the first repertory of early inscriptions, and a monograph on the peony. Ssu-ma Kuang's greatest work is an integrated history of China, 403 B.C.-A.D. 959, compiled 1066-1084. Su Shih (1036-1101), better known as Su Tung-p'o, was distinguished as an independent statesman, and one of China's greatest essayists, poets and calligraphers. Wang An-shih held his own with these as a brilliant writer of state papers and classical expositor.

Use of tea, first mentioned as substitute for wine under the Wu dynasty (222-280), spread through North China.

It is not known when or by whom the principle of magnetic polarity, known to the Chinese at least since the 1st cent. A.D., was applied in the manner's compass with floating needle. The Malays in the 16th century employed, like the Chinese, a compass rose with 24 points, in contrast to the Arab rose of 32 points, which suggests, but does not prove that the Malays received both compass and rose from the north. The compass is plainly mentioned by Chinese writers of the early 12th century. The volume of maritime commerce swelled greatly as Arabs in the 9th and 10th centuries entered into competition with Persians at Canton and Ch'uan-chou (Zayton), later at Lin-an. It was trade in cotton goods which brought 70 families of Jews from Persia and India to settle at the capital Pien-hang, where they remained unmolested until gradually absorbed.

1114-1234 Jurchen Tungus tribes overthrew their Khitan rulers in Man-

churia (1114-10) and with short-sighted Chinese aid, seized all the Liao lands in China (1122-23). Yo-lu Ta-shih of the Khitan led the remnant of his people to found a new state, Kara-Khitan, in eastern Turkestan (1130) and Turkestan proper (1141-1211). Meantime

1122 The Jurchen prince declared himself emperor of the Chin (or Kim) dynasty. He attacked the Sung so vigorously that although Hui Tsung abdicated in favor of his son,

1126. Ch'in Tsung and his father were both captured with the entire court in the capital. Hui Tsung died in captivity (1135).

1127-1279. THE SOUTHERN SUNG. A junior prince fled southeastward across the Long River from city to city, even by sea to Wen-chou, but, when the Chin retired north of the Long River (1130) and set up the puppet buffer state of Ch'i (1130-37), the capital was established (1135) at Lin-an (modern Hang-chou). The gallant general Yueh Fei won several successes until put to death by Ch'in Kuei who made

1141 A peace dictated by economic exhaustion, accepting as frontier the line of the Hwai and upper Han rivers

1161. Explosives were used by Yu Yun-wen in defeating the Chin at Ts'ai-shih (in Anhwei near Nanking). The Chin, like the Liao before them, avidly absorbed and adopted Chinese culture.

Early Chinese philosophers devoted nearly all their effort to the practical study of ethics. Buddhism, however, insistently raised the problems of ontology and epistemology. It is the merit of the Sung philosophers to have achieved a synthesis of ancient ethics with a new rationalized metaphysics. Chou Tun-i (1017-1073) revived a diagram of the ancient diviners to illustrate his conception of causation, emergence of paired forces from primal unity and differentiation of natural phenomena by their interaction. Ch'eng Hao (1032-1085), the leading member of a communion which imitated the valuable Public Services Act of 1071, was in philosophy a mystic synthesist who found benevolence in all things. His brother Ch'eng I (1033-1107) was an analyst who discovered in the *Li Chi* the *Ta Hsueh* or "Great Learning," a short work on method which stresses knowledge as essential to self-improvement on which all human welfare depends. Ideas of the school were systematized and crystallized by Chu Hsi (1130-1200), who equated as universal

Primary Unity, an impersonal but just and benevolent Heaven, and Righteousness, which correspond to the physical, metaphysical, and ethical spheres. From these proceed as co-ordinates the dual modes of production, the decrees of Heaven, and the processes of self-improvement. The final products are, respectively, the diversity of natural phenomena, conscience, and character. All these activities of parallel evolution are expressions of a universal divine law. Acceptance of knowledge as an element in self-improvement and consequent emphasis on objective study, pointed the way towards scientific research, but this tendency was promptly combated by Lu Chiu-yuan (1139-1192), who stressed the teaching of Mencius that goodness springs from within.

Painters under the Southern Sung reproduced most often the mild misty landscapes of the Hang-chou region rather than the beetling crags found south of Ch'ang-an which had often inspired northern artists. Ma Yuan (1190-1224), Hsia Kuei (c. 1180-1230), and their school placed special emphasis on economy of line and representation of mists and clouds. Secular painters came increasingly under domination of conventions which grew up in the academy founded by Hu Tsung, and elegance, charm, and impeccable taste tended to replace more virile virtues, but religious painters, both Buddhist and Taoist, continued to produce vigorous work until the close of the dynasty. Ch'ien Jung (c. 1235-1255) ranks as China's greatest painter of dragons.

Sung ceramists applied to pottery and porcelain in forms of subtle and sophisticated elegance both incised and molded decoration, together with a wide variety of high-fired glazes some of which have never since been equaled. Although most wares were ostensibly monochrome, the potters learned to control color-transmutation of their pigments. The potters of Tz'u-chou for the first time employed penciled decoration both under and over glaze.

c. 1190-1294 THE MONGOLS. In central Asia Temujin (c. 1155-1227) created a new Mongol empire which was rapidly expanded by strategy and a military machine employing discipline, extreme mobility, espionage, terrorism, and superior siege equipment.

1194. The Yellow River, after repeated alterations of its bed, flowed south of the Shantung massif until 1853.

1206. Temujin was proclaimed *Jenghiz Khan* ("Emperor within the Seas") at Karakorum. He employed as chancellor

a Uighur scholar Tatatonga, who applied to Mongol the Uighur script which was derived from Phoenician through Aramaic, Old and New Sogdian. Enforcement of peace and order within the empire promoted both commerce and cultural exchanges.

1211-1222. The Chin were driven south to the Yellow River (from Yen-ching, 1215).

1227. After several campaigns (1205, 1207, 1209) the Hsi Hsia Kingdom was destroyed, with massacre at Ning-hsia. Temujin bequeathed the empire to a grandson and three sons to Batu, son of his eldest Juchi, Kipchak in Russia; to Chagatai, the former Kara-Khitan empire, to Ogedei, Outer Mongolia, and to Tului (1227-1229), eastern Mongolia and North China.

1229-1241. Ogedei was elected khan by plenary kurultai on the Kerulen.

1231. Ye-lü Ch'u-ts'ai (1190-1244) a sinicized son of the Khitan royal house and adviser to Temujin since 1215, proved his ability to collect taxes in China by traditional methods, and was appointed chancellor. Koryŏ (Korea) was conquered and placed under 72 Mongol residents.

1233. Pien-hang fell after a flanking campaign by Tului through Hang-chung and Szechuan (1231-1232), and a long siege by Sabotai in which the Chin defenders used explosive bombs.

1234. The Chin Empire was annexed. Belated Chinese attack provoked Mongol seizure of Szechuan (1236-1238).

1237. Ye-lü Ch'u-ts'ai secured 4030 scholars, one quarter of whom were freed from slavery, through civil service literary examinations, and restored full civilian administration.

1237-1241. Sabotai subjugated Russia and led an invasion through Hungary to Cattaro which was recalled only by death of Ogedei (p. 244).

1246-1248 or 1249. Guyuk, son of Ogedei and his widow Turakina (regent 1242-1246), was elected khan in presence of Plano Carpini, envoy of Innocent IV.

1251-1259. Mongka, son of Tului, was elected over the son of Guyuk's widow (regent 1249-1251).

1252-1253. Mongka's brother Kublai crushed Nan Chao. The king was named *maharaja* and hereditary adminis-

trator under the eyes of a Mongol garrison commander and Chinese resident. More autonomy and an imperial princess were conferred in 1281.

1254. Mengka, the son of a Nestorian woman and employer of a Nestorian chancellor, told William of Rubruck, envoy of Louis IX of France, that religions are like the fingers of one hand. He yet favored Buddhism, and after public disputation (1255) proscribed Taoist books for forgery. Kuslai shortly followed this example (1258).

1257. The capital was transferred to Shang-tu, north of present Peking.

1258. The Mongols pillaged Hanoi, while, at the other end of the empire, Hulagu with a Nestorian wife and general destroyed the Abbasid Caliphate of Baghdad.

1260-1268. THE YÜAN DYNASTY (as distinguished from the Mongol Empire) was effectively founded when Kublai (1214-1294) had himself elected khan by his own army at Shang-tu (1260), although he adopted the dynastic title only in 1272. He ruled in China according to Chinese precedents. His dynastic name is Shih tsu.

1264. The Mongol Empire was reunited by capture of Kublai's brother Ariqboqa, who had been proclaimed khan at Karakorum (1260). Twice (1277 and 1287-1288) its unity was defended against Kaidu, head of the house of Ogedei. Kublai's authority was respected by his brother Hulagu and the succeeding Ilkhans of Persia, and in theory by the Golden Horde on the Volga. He transferred (1264) the winter capital to Yen-ching where he constructed Khanbalig, modern Peking (1267). He erected an astronomical observatory on the city wall, wherein were installed bronze instruments cast by Kuo Shou-ching (1279).

1268-1273. A siege of Hsiang-yang and Fan-ch'eng on the Han was ended after 4 years 5 months only by engineers and machines from Mesopotamia. Thereafter the Mongols were free to descend towards the sea.

1276. Capitulation of the empress-regent and boy-emperor at Lin-an (Hang-chou) was followed by capture of Canton (twice, 1277) and destruction of a fleet carrying the last youthful Sung pretender (1279).

1281. Disastrous attack upon Japan. An assault in 1274 having failed, a Mongol army of 45,000 from Korea joined (June) a tardy armada with 120,000 men from the southern Chinese coast in landing

at Hakozaki Bay. The invaders were repulsed by the well-prepared Japanese until (Aug. 15) a typhoon destroyed their fleets, leaving them to death or slavery.

1282-1283. An army sent by sea from Canton to subdue Champa took the capital Vijaya, but was forced by epidemics to withdraw.

1285 and 1287-1288. Abortive expeditions against Annam and Champa by land and sea were massacred and repulsed, but secured admission of vassalage.

1287. The Mongols pillaged Pagan, capital of Burma, received homage (1297), and returned (1300) to pacify competing Shan chiefs.

1292-1293. A naval expedition to Java, after temporary success, was forced to re-embark.

1294. Tribute was received from the Siamese kingdoms of Xieng-mai and Sukhotai.

1295-1307. Temur Oljaitu, grandson of Kublai, was the second and last effective ruler of the Yuan dynasty.

1296. A Mongol embassy accompanied by Chou Ta-kuan found Chen-la (Cambodia) much weakened by the attacks of Sukhotai, which had now become a powerful state under its second ruler Rama Kamheng.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS. Kublai devoted special attention to economic matters. The Grand Canal was restored (1289-1292) from the former Sung capital, Lin-an at Hang-chou (the Kinsay of Marco Polo), now a great and rich city, to the Hwai River, and carried north to the outskirts of Peking. Imperial roads were improved, and postal relays of 200,000 horses established. Charitable relief was organized (1260) for aged scholars, orphans, and the sick, for whom hospitals were provided (1272). Imperial inspectors every year examined crops and the food supply with a view to purchase when stocks were ample for storage against famine.

The Tang first employed paper money orders, to which the Sung and Chin added various bills of exchange. When issue of paper currency was suggested to Ogedei (1236), Ye-lu Ch'u-tsai secured limitation to value of 100,000 oz. of silver. Under Kublai, a Mohammedan financier, Sayyid-i Edjill Chams al-Din Omar (1210-1279), kept annual issues at an average of 511,400 oz. (1260-1269). His successor Ahmed Fenaketi increased emissions (1276-1282) to 10,000,000 oz. annually. After Ahmed's murder, inflation increased until a *Uighur*

lanka reduced the rate of printing 5 000 000 oz (1290-1291). Circuit stabilization treasures (1264 and 1287) were given reserves inadequate to redeem the flood of bills at 2½% discount, the official rate of 1287. The issue of 1260 depreciated until replaced 1 for 5 by that of 1287, which again was replaced 1 for 5 in 1309. All printing was discontinued in 1311; but the credit, financial and moral, of the dynasty was already on the wane. The southern provinces of the empire rapidly fell from its control.

Marco Polo, in the service of the khan (1275-1292), traveled widely in Cathay (from Khitai, hence North China), and Manzi (South China), and to Burma (p. 362). Through his "Division of the World" he first brought detailed and accurate knowledge of eastern Asia to Europe. In his time, and even in that of the Arab, Ibn Battuta (c. 1345), Zayton (Ch'uan-chou) was the busiest deep-sea port in the world, leading Kinsay (Lin-an), Foochow (Fuchow), and Canton in shipping silks and porcelains to Java, Malaya, Ceylon, India, and Persia in exchange for spices, gems and pearls. The itineraries given by Chao Ju-kua (1225) imply in the precision of their bearings the use of a compass needle mounted on a dry pivot.

THE MOSLEM COMMUNITIES of Persian and Arab traders at these ports were small compared to those which now grew up in North China and in Yunnan. Sayyid-i Edul as governor of Yunnan (1274-1279) built the first two mosques in what became a stronghold of Islam. Most popular religion with all the Mongols was Buddhism. Kublai welcomed a gift of relics of the Buddha from the raja of Ceylon. He conferred the title *Teacher of the State* upon a Tibetan lama Phags-pa, whom he employed to convert the Mongols and to whom he entrusted government of the three provinces of Tibet.

NESTORIAN CHRISTIANS enjoyed full protection. The Patriarch of Baghdad created an archbishopric at Peking (1275), churches were built in Chien-kiang (1281), Yang-chou, and Hang-chou; and a special bureau was created (1289) to care for Christianity. Mar Yabalaha, pilgrim from Peking to Jerusalem, was elected patriarch (1281), and his companion Rabban Sauma was sent by him and Argun, Ilkhan of Persia, to Rome and France. He negotiated with Pope Nicholas IV an entente between the Nestorian and Roman churches. John of Montecorvino was the first of several Roman missionaries to China (1294-1328). He baptized 5000 converts and was named by the pope (1307) Arch-

bishop of Peking. He received a three-year visit from Odoric of Pordenone who reported to Europe the custom of foot-binding, which had spread through South China under the Southern Sung, but which was unknown to the Chin and early Yuan.

LITERATURE: the Mongol period introduced the novel and the drama, the latter accompanied by raucous percussion music. Although neither was at once admitted as a form of polite letters, both are now recognized to possess artistic merit.

PAINTING: one group of artists continued traditions of the Southern Sung while another boldly swept away the mists which had shrouded landscape. Ch'ien Hsuan (1235-c. 1290) is perhaps the greatest painter of flowers and insects. Chao Meng-fu (1254-1322) was particularly adept at depicting the horses and other live-stock which were prominent in Mongol economy. Yuan porcelain reveals in arabesques no less than in the technique of penciling in cobalt blue directly on clear white paste the debt of Chinese potters to Persian models. From these also is derived the Byzantine form of cloisonné enamel.

1368-1644. THE MING DYNASTY was founded by Chu Yuan-chang (Ming Tai Tsu 1328-1398), a monk turned insurgent amidst anarchy, who seized Chiang-ning (Nanking) in 1356, set up there an orderly government, and proceeded to annex the holdings of surrounding southern war-lords until in 1368 he was strong enough to drive the Mongols from Peking with Shensi, Kansu (1369) and Szechuan (1371). Like all the emperors of this and the following dynasty he ruled under a single reign-title, *Hong-wu* (1368-1398), which is accordingly often used instead of his personal name.

1382 Yunnan was completely conquered, and its prince executed at Nanking. The whole territory of China was now under direct government.

1388 The Mongols were driven from Karakorum and defeated on the Keulen.

1392-1910 The Li dynasty was founded in Korea upon the ruins of that of Wang, which had reigned since 918 (p. 340).

1403-1424 The Yung Lo reign of Ch'eng Tsu was established by violence against his nephew, who disappeared in a palace fire (1402).

1403-1433. A series of naval expeditions through the southern seas was motivated by desire for commerce and military prestige, but also by uneasiness

lest the deposed nephew emerge thence to claim his throne. Secret inquiry by Hui-jung within the empire also was protracted 1407-1416 1419-1423. A claimant actually appeared in Honan in 1440.

1405-1407 Cheng Ho, the chief eunuch (a Mohammedan whose real surname was Ma) brought back in chains the Prince of Palembang (Sumatra), who had been defeated in battle, as he did.

1408-1411 The King of Ceylon and his family, who had attacked the mission. As a result of

1412-1418. A third cruise as far as Hormuz, sixteen southern states sent tribute. Cheng Ho was appointed to lead three more embassies during his reign 1416-1419 (as far as Aden), 1421-1422, and 1424. Other eunuchs led additional missions.

1410, 1414, 1422-1424. Campaigns into Outer Mongolia were directed at destruction of whatever chieftain or group momentarily possessed sufficient prestige to threaten recreation of the Mongol power.

1421. Transfer of the capital to Peking was mooted in 1409, decided in 1420. Wisdom of the move is reflected by the fact that the northern frontier was never successfully violated during the five centuries Peking remained capital save when the Manchus were invited in.

1428-1788. The later Le dynasty in Annam, after a quarter century of fighting, secured recognition of independence (1437) from Hsuan Tsung in the Hsuan Te reign (1426-1435). The royal title was conferred in 1435.

1431-1433. Cheng Ho led a seventh and final embassy to twenty states. As result tribute was sent by Mecca and ten others.

1449 Emperor Ying Tsung (1435-1449 and 1457-1464) was captured in battle by the chief of a new Mongol confederation (Orat) of four tribes. Although released next year he recovered his throne from his brother Chung Ti only in 1457.

c. 1470-1543. Dayan, a descendant of Jenghiz, restored unity to Mongolia, but divided it among his own descendants.

1471 Annam finally annexed its southern neighbor, Champa. (Cont p 536)

a. BURMA

From early times Burma was under Indian influence. By the 3d century A.D. expanding Hindu peoples had established

commercial settlements on the Tenasserim coast and at the principal river mouths which developed into small kingdoms in contact with the Tibeto-Burman tribes or the Irawaddy Valley. Commercial relations with China were less influential, although an embassy from a Burmese state reached Ch'ang An in 802.

1044. Anawrata seized royal power at Pagan and by his patronage of Hinayana Buddhism and conquests, both north and south, made it the political, religious and cultural center of Burma, the Burmese written language was developed and Buddhist scriptures translated, architectural monuments followed the inspiration of Ceylon and southern India, able rulers succeeded Anawrata.

1105. A Burmese embassy at the Sung capital in China was received as from a fully sovereign state.

1287. Following the rejection of Mongol demands for tribute (1271 and later), Burmese raids into Yunnan, and the death of Narathihapate (who ruled 1254-1287), Mongol forces looted Pagan and destroyed its power. The invasion of Shan tribes, forced southward by the Mongols, led to the division of Burma into a number of petty states, chief among them being Toungoo (estab. 1280), Pegu in southern Burma, and Ava in the middle and lower Irawaddy Valley (estab. as capital 1365). (Cont p 541.)

b. SIAM

During the early centuries of the Christian Era, the Khmer peoples of the Menam Valley came under the influence of Hindu civilization, and about the 6th century there was organized, in the region of Lopburi, the Kingdom of Dvaravati, which was Buddhist rather than Brahman in religion, and from which during the 8th century migrants to the upper Menam Valley established the independent and predominantly Buddhist Kingdom of Haripunjaya with its capital near the present Chiengmai. Early in the 11th century Dvaravati was annexed to Cambodia, but Haripunjaya retained its independence until the 13th century when it was overrun by a migration of Tai, or Shan, peoples from the north. This migration, accelerated by the Mongol conquest of the Tai state of Nanchao (in modern Yunnan and southern Szechuan) in 1253, led eventually to the suppression of the Khmer kingdoms and the setting up of the Tai Kingdom of Siam with its capital at Ayuthia, founded by Rama Tiboti in 1350. The early Siamese state was from the first under the influence

both of Hinayana Buddhism and of Chinese political institutions. Toward the end of the 13th century a form of writing had been invented for the Siamese language.

1350-1460. Siamese invasions of Cambodia finally led to the abandonment of Angkor and collapse of the Khmer Empire.

1371. A Siamese embassy at Nanking inaugurated tributary relations with the newly founded Ming dynasty.

1376-1557. Intermittent friction between Siam and the Tai state of Chiangmai in the northern Menam Valley ended only with the destruction of Chiangmai by the Burmese.

During the 14th and 15th centuries strong Siamese influence was exerted over the disunited states of Burma and the northern part of the Malay Peninsula.

(*Cont p 541*)

c. MALAYSIA

Early Indian commercial settlements in Sumatra and Java, at first Brahman in religion and later influenced by Buddhism, became the centers of organized states. Toward the end of the 7th century A.D., Srivishaya became the dominant state of Sumatra and built up a commercial empire which at its height (c. 1180) controlled the Straits of Malacca and of Sunda, all of Sumatra and the Malay Peninsula, and the western half of Java, its authority was

recognized as far away as Ceylon and Formosa, and in many colonies throughout the East Indies. The Sailendra dynasty, rulers of Srivishaya, were ardent patrons of Buddhism, as is shown in the great Borobudur victory monument in central Java. The consolidation of petty Javanese states begun after the middle of the 9th century, led to the rise of Singosari in eastern Java, which under Kartanagara (who ruled 1268-1292) challenged and finally destroyed the power of Srivishaya.

1293. A Mongol expedition, sent to avenge insult offered by Kartanagara, was forced out of Java by a new kingdom, Majapahit, which during the 14th century built up a commercial empire with authority extending over Borneo, Sumatra and parts of the Philippines and of the Malay peninsula, and pruned by an extensive trade with China, Indo-China, and India. After the

1389. Death of Hayam Wuruk, the power of Majapahit disintegrated.

1405-1407. The first Chinese expedition under Cheng Ho established tributary relations between many Malay states and the Ming Empire, and the authority of Majapahit rapidly gave way to that of the Mohammedan Arabs. During the 15th century Mohammedan commercial operations, based chiefly on Malacca, were extended to the whole archipelago, and some 20 states accepted Islam as the state religion. (*Cont p. 541.*)

4. KOREA

612. Emperor Yang-ti of the Sui dynasty of China invaded Koguryō, but was repulsed.

645-647. Two T'ang expeditions against Koguryō failed.

663. The T'ang destroyed Paekche.

668. The T'ang and Silla together destroyed Koguryō.

670. Silla robbed the T'ang of Paekche and southern Koguryō, but did not break its allegiance to China.

670-935. SILLA PERIOD.

670-780. Height of Silla power and culture, when Buddhism and art flourished, particularly at the capital near the modern Kyōngju (J. Keishū).

780-935. Period of political decline, but of closer relations with and increasing imitation of China.

c. 880. Serious rebellions broke out.

918. The state of Koryō was founded in west central Korea.

935. Silla peacefully submitted to Koryō.

935-1392 KORYŌ PERIOD.

935-1170. Height of Koryō power and culture centering around the capital, Kaesong (modern Sōngdo, J. Kanjō) in west central Korea and P'yōngyang, the secondary capital.

936. Koryō destroyed Later Paekche, thus uniting Korea once more.

996. The Khitan (Liao dynasty) forced Koryō to recognize them, and not the Sung dynasty of China, as overlords of Korea.

1044. A great wall was completed across northern Korea as a defense against the Manchurian peoples.

1123. The Juchen (Chin dynasty) forced Koryō to recognize their suzerainty.

1170. Military officers seized the government and proscribed Buddhism.

1196. The Ch'oe family established its control over the government with the title of *Kongnyō* 王.

- 1223 Beginning of over 200 years of attacks on coastal regions by Japanese pirates.
1231. The Mongols invaded Korea, and the Ch'oe removed the government to the island of Kanghwa off the west coast.
1258. The Im (Lim, J. Rim) family supplanted the Ch'oe as *Konghyōng*.
1259. Koryō submitted to the Mongols, and the Koryō kings through intermarriage became merely a branch of the Mongol imperial family and their representatives in Korea. This situation and the rise of Confucianism at this time led gradually to the unquestioning acceptance of Chinese suzerainty and leadership in political and cultural matters.
1356. Koryō revolted successfully against the Mongols.
- 1356-1392. Period of great disorder. The Koryō kings, who had depended on Mongol prestige for their authority, were unable to suppress their unruly vassals, and the Japanese pirates were at their worst.

1369. Koryō submitted to the Ming dynasty of China.

1392. I (Li, J. Ri) Sōnggye declared himself king after a series of *coups d'état* and assassinations, thus founding the

1392-1910. I (Li, J. Ri) DYNASTY with its capital at Kyōngsōng (modern Sōul [Seoul], J. Keijō). This new dynasty based its claims to legitimacy on its championing of the Ming cause as opposed to the Mongols, considered by them not to be the legitimate rulers of China. Like their predecessors they remained unwaveringly loyal and subservient to China.

1392-1494. Period of greatest prosperity and cultural development.

1419-1451. King Sejong was a patron of learning, and in his time the native phonetic script called *ōnmun* was introduced. During this reign the Japanese pirates ceased to ravage the Korean coast, and the northeastern corner of present-day Korea was brought under Korean rule.

(Cont. p. 542.)

5. JAPAN, 645-1543

645-784. PERIOD OF THE IMITATION OF CHINA.

An edict outlining the general principles of national reorganization was promulgated as early as 646 (the *Taika Reform*), but it was only in the course of several decades that the principles were put into practice and even then the reforms often remained on paper. The major features of the new system were (1) the nationalization of the land, in theory, (2) the adoption of the T'ang system of land distribution and taxation, (3) the reorganization of local government and other measures intended to increase the authority of the central government in the provinces and its income from them, and (4) the reorganization of the central government. The principles and many of the details of the reforms were borrowed directly from China, but in Japan dominated as it was by an hereditary aristocracy, it was well-nigh impossible to carry them out in full, and from the start they were basically modified in practice. (1) Although the land was nationalized in theory, in actuality the large hereditary estates of the clan chiefs were returned to them as lands held as salary for their official positions and ranks. (2) The land was to be periodically divided among the agriculturalists in accordance with the membership of each family as determined by census, and uniform taxes were to be levied on all alike.

These were (a) the land tax (*so*), paid in rice, (b) the corvée (*yōseki*), often commuted at a fixed rate into a textile tax, and (c) the excise (*chō*) levied on produce other than rice. The system was too closely patterned after the Chinese and functioned badly in Japan from the beginning. Powerful families and institutions, hungry for land, were always ready to deprive the public domain of taxpaying lands, and the peasants, impoverished by taxes, were often anxious to transfer themselves and their lands from the taxpaying public domain to the care of privately owned manors (*shōen*). As a result the history of economic development during the next several centuries is primarily the story of the return of the land unto private hands and the emergence of large tax-free estates owned by the court nobility and great religious institutions. (3) The improvement of means of communication helped in the centralization of government and in the collection of taxes, but, although the officials of the provincial governments were to have been appointees of the central government, in practice local leaders retained their supremacy by occupying the lower posts and it soon became the accepted custom for the high provincial officials to remain at the capital and to delegate their powers to underlings in the provinces. (4) An essential and permanent feature of the reforms was the complete

reorganization and great elaboration of the central government. A department of religion (*jingikan*) and a great council of state (*dajōkan*) were established as two parallel organs controlling the spiritual and political aspects of the state. Below the great council were eight ministries, and below them in turn many smaller bureaus. The organization was too ponderous for the Japan of that day. Moreover, with the collapse of the economic supports of the central government through the growth of tax-free estates, this elaborate organism was literally starved to death. Although in theory it continued little changed until the 10th century, actually during most of that period it was merely a skeleton devoid of most of its former powers. In adopting the Chinese form of government the Japanese made one significant change. The official hierarchy of Japan remained a hereditary aristocracy, and with rare exceptions there was little opportunity for the able or learned of low rank to rise far in this hierarchy.

This period was the classic era of Japanese culture. Poetry and prose in pure Chinese were composed, and native Japanese poetry reached an early flowering. Japanese literary had already been artistic styles, and now the art of Tang China found fertile soil in Japan and produced there many of the greatest extant examples of Far Eastern art of that day in the fields of architecture, sculpture, painting and the applied arts.

663. The Japanese withdrew from Korea, after the defeat of a Japanese army and fleet, sent to the aid of Paekche, by a combined force from China and Silla (662). Thus ended the first period of Japanese continental expansion. The fall of Paekche in 663 and of Koguryō (a North Korean kingdom) in 668 left Silla supreme in the peninsula and resulted in a great immigration of Korean refugees into Japan.

697. The Empress Jitō (680-697) abdicated in favor of her grandson, Mommu (697-707). This was the first case of the accession of a minor and the second of the abdication of a ruler, but both were soon to become the rule.

702. New civil and penal codes known as the *Taihō Laws* were promulgated. This may have been the first complete codification of the laws embodied in the reforms commenced in 646, although there is mention of an earlier code. These laws, together with a revision of 718 (*Fōrō Laws*, not enforced until 757), have come down to us only through later commenta-

ries, the *Kyō no Gige* of 833 and the *Kyō no Shūgi* of 920. A supplementary code, the *Engishiki*, was completed in 928.

710. Heijō (or Nara) was laid out on the model of Chang-an, the T'ang capital, as the first permanent capital of Japan. The period during which it was the capital is known as

710-784 THE NARA PERIOD

712. The *Kojiki*, which records the history of the imperial line since its mythical origins, was written in Chinese characters (used to a large extent phonetically) to represent Japanese words. This is Japan's oldest extant book.

720. The *Nihonshoki* (or *Nihongi*), a more detailed history of Japan written in Chinese, was compiled. It was continued to 887 by five other official histories written in Chinese, which together with it constitute the Six National Histories (*Rikko-kushū*).

724-749. Shōmu's reign, which included the brilliant Tempyō year period (729-748). This and the period during which Shōmu dominated the court as the retired emperor (740-756) marked the apogee of the Nara Period and its classic semi-Chinese culture.

737. The death of the four grandsons of Kamatari delayed for several decades the complete domination of the imperial court by the Fujiwara clan.

741. Government monasteries and convents (*Kōkubōji*) were ordered erected in each province.

752. The dedication of the Great Buddha (*Dairatsū*) at Nara marked the completion of the devout Shōmu's most cherished project. The 50-foot bronze figure of the Buddha Rushuna (Skt. *Lohanacana*) and the huge hall built over it was a tremendous undertaking for the Japanese court and gave witness to the great Buddhist fervor of the time. Many of the objects used in the dedication service together with the personal belongings of Shōmu form the basis of the unique collection of 8th century furniture and art preserved at the imperial treasury in Nara (the *Shōin*, commented in 756).

Shortly before the erection of the Great Buddha the famous monk, Gyōgi (670-749), is said to have propagated the concept that Buddhism and Shintō were two aspects of the same faith. Such beliefs served as a justification for the growing amalgamation of the two religions, which was to lead by the 12th century to the development of *Dual Shintō* (*Ryōbu Shintō*), in which Shintō gods were considered to be manifestations

of Buddhist deities. Faced with a highly developed foreign religion backed by all the prestige of the more advanced Chinese civilization, the simple native cult became for a period of almost 1000 years the handmaiden of Buddhism in an unequal union.

754. The Chinese monk Ganjin (also pronounced Kanshin, etc., Ch. *Chien-shén*, d. 763), after five unsuccessful attempts to reach Japan, finally arrived at Nara, where he set up the first education platform (*kammon*) and firmly established the Ritsu (Skt. *Vinaya*) Sect, which stressed discipline rather than doctrine. The Ritsu Sect together with five other sects formed the so-called Nara Sects, the oldest sectarian divisions of Japanese Buddhism. These others were the Sanron (Skt. *Mudgala*) Sect, said to have been introduced in 553; the Hossō (Skt. *Dharmapala*) Sect, brought from China by Dōshō (d. 700), who had gone there to study in 653; the Kegon (Skt. *Ataśamukha*) Sect, which was largely responsible for the cult of Rushana, the universal and omnipresent Buddha; the Kusha (Skt. *Abhidharmaśāstra*) Sect; and the Jōtzu (Skt. *Satyavādha*) Sect, which last two may never have existed as independent religious bodies in Japan.

759. The *Manyōshū*, a collection of over 4000 poems in pure Japanese, composed largely by the court nobility between 687 and 759, was compiled shortly after the latter date. It was followed in later centuries by similar anthologies. In 751 the *Kaifusō*, a small collection of poems in Chinese, had been compiled; it likewise was continued by similar works.

764. A clash for power between Fujiwara Nakamaro (also known as Emi Oshikatsu), the leading statesman during Junnin's reign (758-764), and Dōkyō, the monk favorite of the retired nun empress, Kōken (749-758), led to the death of Nakamaro, the exile of Junnin, his subsequent assassination and the reascension to the throne of Kōken as the Empress Shōtoku.

764-770. Dōkyō was all-powerful during Shōtoku's reign and may even have aspired to the throne. Strong opposition and Shōtoku's death led to his ultimate downfall. Perhaps because of the memory of Dōkyō's influence over Shōtoku, for almost nine centuries thereafter no woman occupied the throne.

781-806. The reign of the energetic Kammu witnessed the conquest of much of northern Honshū in a prolonged but successful border struggle with the Ainu. After several initial failures the natives of this region, both Ainu and intractable Japanese frontiersmen, were definitely brought under the imperial sway by Sakanoue Ta-

muramaro (d. 817). His campaigns concluded centuries of slow advance into Ainu territory. After a final outbreak in 812 the Ainu menace in the north never again assumed major proportions.

794. Kammu moved the capital from Nagaoka, where it had been since 784, to Heian, the modern Kyōto, where it remained until 1868. The reasons for his abandoning of Nara are not definitely known but were probably (1) a desire to make a new departure politically and economically, (2) a desire to escape the oppressive influence of the powerful Nara monasteries; (3) the superior location of Nagaoka and Kyōto, which had better water communications with the sea, and (4) the influence of the Hata family (7) which had lands in that region. The reasons for the sudden removal of the capital from Nagaoka to Kyōto, a few miles farther inland, are still more obscure, but may have been connected with Kammu's fear that the first site had incurred the curse of certain spirits. The establishing of the capital at Kyōto marked the beginning of

794-1185. THE HEIAN PERIOD, a long era marked by few violent upheavals but one in which the transition from the period of the imitation of China to the feudal and more strictly Japanese Kamakura period was slowly made. These centuries were characterized by a somewhat elite dilettantist court society becoming increasingly divorced from political and economic realities, the gradual decline and collapse of the economic and political system borrowed from China; the growth of tax-free manors, the slow emergence of a new military class in the provinces, the full glory and subsequent decline of the Fujiwara family, the appearance and development of the Buddhist sects and cults which dominated much of Japan's religious history, a sounder understanding of the borrowed Chinese civilization and a greater ability to synthesize it with what was natively Japanese, or to modify it to fit the peculiar needs of Japan; a resultant growing cultural independence of China, and the reappearance of more purely Japanese art and literature.

800-816. New offices in the central government, which were to affect profoundly the whole administration, appeared at this time. These were: (1) the *kageushū* (audit office) (c. 800), which in time usurped the prerogatives of the original audit and revenue offices; (2) the *kurōdo-dokoro* (bureau of archivists) (810), which gradually attained control of palace affairs and became the organ for issuing imperial decrees; (3) the *heibishū* (police commission) (c. 816)

high a time became the primary law enforcement organ of the state and eventually created outside of the official codes its own code of customary law.

804. Tendai and Shingon, the two leading sects of the Heian period, were founded by Saichō (Dengyō Daishi 767-822) and Kūkai (Kōbō Daishi 774-835) respectively. Both monks accompanied the eleventh embassy to the Tang in 804. Saichō returned to Japan the next year to found the Tendai Sect named after Mt. T'ien-t'ai in China. The syncretistic inclusive nature of the philosophy of the sect appealed to the Japanese, and its central monastery, the Enryakuji, which Saichō founded on Mt. Hiei overlooking Kyōto (788), became the center from which sprang most of the later significant movements in Japanese Buddhism. Kūkai returned from China in 806 bringing with him the Shingon or Tantric Sect, a late esoteric and mystic form of Indian Buddhism. Because of his tremendous personality and the natural appeal of Shingon to the superstitious propensities of the people, the new sect won considerable popular support, and the Kongōbuji monastery on Mt. Kōya, which Kūkai founded (816), became one of the great centers of Buddhism. Tendai and Shingon were more genuinely Japanese in spirit than were the Nara sects, and the Shingon Sect in particular furthered the union of Shintō and Buddhism.

838. The twelfth and last embassy to the T'ang was dispatched. When in 804 Sugawara Michizane (845-903) was appointed to be the next envoy, he persuaded the court to discontinue the practice on the grounds that China was disturbed and no longer able to teach Japan. Although some unofficial intercourse continued between the two countries, this brought to an end the three centuries of the greatest cultural borrowing from China and marked the beginning of a period in which peculiarly Japanese traits asserted themselves increasingly in all phases of Japanese life.

858. The complete domination of the Fujiwara clan over the imperial family was achieved by Yoshifusa (804-872) when he became the *de facto* regent of the child-emperor, Seiwa (858-876). In 806, after Seiwa had attained his majority, Yoshifusa assumed the title of regent (*sesshō*), becoming the first non-imperial regent. Seiwa was the first male adult emperor to have a regent. The typical inner family control which the Fujiwara exercised over the emperors can be seen in the relationship that existed between Seiwa and Yoshifusa, for the latter was both the grandfather and the father-in-law of the young ruler. It was the

definite policy of the Fujiwara to have a young imperial grandson or the head of the clan occupy the throne and to have him abdicate early in favor of another child. The period of the domination of the Fujiwara family is often called

866-1169. THE FUJIWARA PERIOD.

880. Fujiwara Mototsune (836-891) became the first civil dictator (*tem-paku*), a post thereafter customarily held by the head of the clan when an adult emperor was on the throne, while the post of regent came to be reserved for the clan head in the time of a minor emperor.

889. The branch of the warrior Taira clan which was to rule Japan for part of the 12th century was founded when a great grandson of Kanmu was given this surname. The clan was established in 825 by another imperial prince. In 814 the rival military clan of Minamoto was founded by other members of the imperial clan, and in 961 the princely progenitor of the later Minamoto rulers received this surname. The descendants of such imperial princes, reduced to the rank of commoners, often went to the provinces to seek their fortunes, and there some of them merged with the rising class of warriors, who were soon to dominate the land.

891. The Emperor Uda (887-897) who was not the son of a Fujiwara mother, made a determined effort to rule independently without Fujiwara influence and refused to appoint a new civil dictator after Mototsune's death. To further this end he used the brilliant scholar, Sugawara Michizane (845-903), as his confidential minister, but after Uda's abdication (d. 931), Fujiwara Tokihira (871-900) managed to obtain the removal of Michizane to a provincial post, where he soon died. He was posthumously loaded with honors and deified because it was believed that his vengeful spirit had caused certain calamities. Tokihira throughout his official career strove valiantly but in vain to stem the tide of governmental corruption and disintegration.

905. The *Kokinshū*, an anthology of over 1000 poems in Japanese, was compiled by Imperial order in a revival of interest in Japanese poetry. For over a century almost all literary effort and scholarship had been devoted to prose and poetry in the Chinese language, but Ki Tsurayuki (d. 946) wrote the preface to the *Kokinshū* in Japanese and followed it in 935 by a travel diary (*Towa Nikki*) also in Japanese. Within the short compass of a century Japanese prose was to rise to great heights of literary achievement. An important contributing factor to the revival of

Japanese literature at this time was the fact that in the preceding century a simple syllabary for writing Japanese phonetically had been evolved from the complicated Chinese characters.

930. The offices of regent and civil dictator were revived after a lapse of four decades when Fujiwara Tadachika (880-949) became regent in 930 and civil dictator in 941.

935-941. Civil strife in the provinces broke out on an unprecedented scale, giving witness to the rise of the provincial military class. From 936 until his death in 941 Sumitomo, a member of the Fujiwara clan and a former provincial official, controlled the Inland Sea as a pirate captain, while in eastern Japan an imperial son, Taira Masakado, after waging war on his relatives and neighbors, declared himself emperor (940), but was presently killed.

949. The Emperor Murakami (947-967) did not appoint a successor to Tadachika, but after the former's demise

967-1068. The successive heads of the Fujiwara clan occupied the posts of regent and civil dictator almost uninterruptedly for a full century. This was the heyday of the Fujiwara clan and the core of the so-called Fujiwara period. Court life was ostentatious and extravagant and was characterized by amatorial dilettantism and moral laxity. At the same time petty jealousies and intrigues disrupted the Fujiwara clan, members of the provincial warrior class began to appear on the capital stage as petty military officers and came to be used by the court nobles in their disputes. Manors continued to grow apace, further limiting government resources and the general collapse of the central government continued unabated.

985. The *Ōyōyōshū* by the monk Genchin (942-1017) gave literate expression to new religious currents which were stirring the nation. A belief had sprung up that the age of *waipō* ("the latter end of the law"), a period of degeneracy to come 2000 years after the Buddha's death, had already commenced. There was a growing belief in the Pure Land (*Jōdo*), Paradise of Amida (Skt. *Amida*) and salvation through his benign intervention in favor of the believer and not only through one's own efforts as earlier Buddhism had taught. Emphasis was increasingly placed on *nembutsu*, the repetition of Amida's name or a simple Amidaist formula. Kūya (903-972), an itinerant preaching monk, was the first articulate voice to express this new religious move-

ment, and Genchin gave it sound literary formulation. It continued to develop, and in the 12th and 13th centuries produced important new Buddhist sects.

995-1028. FUJIWARA MICHINAGA'S (966-1028) rule over clan and state saw the zenith of clan power and some of the most brilliant decades of artistic and literary achievement of the epoch. Although he was never officially civil dictator and was regent for only a short period prior to his official retirement in 1017, he was perhaps the most powerful leader the Fujiwara produced. At this time the classic prose literature of Japan reached its height in the *Genji Monogatari* (c. 1008-1020), a long novel by Murasaki Shikibu, a court lady, and in the *Makura no Sōshi* (Pillow Book) (c. 1002), a shorter miscellany by another court lady, Sei Shōnagon. The refined and somewhat feminine art of the epoch also was at its height. Jōchō (d. 1057), a famous Buddhist sculptor, was already active, and Michinaga's successor, Yorimichi (992-1074, regent 1017-1020, civil dictator 1020-1068), built the *Byōdōin*, the outstanding architectural work remaining from the age.

1039. Armed Enryakuji monks invaded Kyōto to force their will upon the government, but were driven off by Taira troops at Yorimichi's command. Such descents upon the capital, known as "forceful appeals" (*gōto*), were common during the 11th and later centuries and sometimes led to actual fighting. The turbulence of the monks, who fought fiercely among themselves as well as with the court, made it necessary for the court to appeal to the Taira and Minamoto for military aid, and the warrior clans consequently became more influential at court.

1051-1062. In the Earlier Nine Years' War Minamoto Yoriyoshi, on imperial command, destroyed the Abe, a powerful military clan of northern Japan. Thereby he firmly established the prestige of his branch of the Minamoto clan in eastern and northern Japan. Yoriyoshi's ancestors had already started the military renown of the house, and its status at court as "the claws and teeth of the Fujiwara" greatly increased its power.

1068-1073. The Emperor Sanjō II, who was not the son of a Fujiwara mother, ruled directly without the interference of the Fujiwara. Although the latter continued to occupy the posts of regent and civil dictator, they never again gained full control of the government. Sanjō II established a records office (*kiyōkujo*) to examine title deeds of manors in an effort to check

their growth but in this attempt he was blocked by the opposition of the Fujiwara.

1083-1087. In the Latter Three Years' War Minamoto Yoshue (1041-1108) destroyed the Kiyowara family of northern Japan, thereby increasing Minamoto prestige in that region.

1086-1129. The Emperor Shirakawa (1073-1086) continued to rule after his abdication as a retired emperor (*jōkō*) and after 1006 as a priestly retired emperor (*hōō*). He built up a complete governmental organization of his own (*insei*, camera government) which was continued during much of the next two and a half centuries by other retired emperors and priestly retired emperors, but after 1156 they lost control of the government to the warrior clans.

1129-1156. The Emperor Toba (1107-1123) ruled after Shirakawa's death as a priestly retired emperor.

1156. Civil war (the *Hōgen no Ran*) broke out between the reigning emperor Shirakawa II (1155-1158), and the retired emperor, Sutoku (1123-1142). Both were supported by prominent members of the Fujiwara, Minamoto, and Taira clans. Shirakawa II's partisans, among whom were numbered Minamoto Yoshitomo (1123-1160) and Taira Kiyomori (1118-1181), were victorious. Sutoku was exiled, and many of his supporters were executed. This war brought no lasting peace and was soon followed by

1160. A second civil war (*Heiji no Ran*), in which Minamoto Yoshitomo and an adventurous young Fujiwara noble, Nobuyori (1133-1160), gained temporary control of the capital by a successful *coup d'état*, but were soon crushed by the Taira. This war left

1160-1181. Taira Kiyomori in control of the nation. The two wars of 1156 and 1160 had not been a struggle for power between the court and the military clans, but the result had been to make a single victorious warrior backed by personal troops, the dominating figure in Japanese politics. Shirakawa II as retired emperor (1158-1192) had some influence in the government, but in 1167 Kiyomori had himself appointed prime minister (*dajōdaryō*), and gave important posts in the central and provincial governments to his clansmen. Kiyomori married his daughters into both the imperial and the Fujiwara families. In 1180 his infant grandson Antoku, was placed on the throne. Thus he attained the same hold over the imperial family that the Fujiwara had once had.

1175. The Pure Land (*Jōdo*) Sect was founded by Genkū (Hōnen Shōnin) (1133-1212). It was the first of the Amidist Sects, and this event marked the beginning of a great new sectarian movement.

1179. The death of Shigemori (1138-1179). Kiyomori's eldest son and perhaps the wisest of the Taira, removed a stabilizing check on Kiyomori, whose desire for more power was leading him to excesses which were alienating the sympathies of the imperial family, the court nobility, and the Buddhist monasteries. The rapid adoption on the part of Kiyomori and his family of the customs and mentality of the court nobles also estranged many of the provincial supporters of the clan.

1180. An abortive uprising against the Taira led by an imperial prince and by Minamoto Yoritomo (1100-1180), together with certain monasteries, started a general uprising of the remnants of the Minamoto clan under the leadership of Yoshinomo's son, Yoritomo (1147-1199), backed by Taira and other clansmen of eastern Japan.

1183. The Taira were driven out of Kyōto by Yoshinaka (1154-1184), cousin of Yoritomo. A long campaign in the Inland Sea region followed and culminated in

1185. The battle of Dan no Ura, at the western outlet of the Inland Sea where Yoritomo's younger brother, Yoshitsune (1150-1186) annihilated the Taira. The child-emperor, Antoku, whom the fleeing Taira had taken with them, died in the battle. The elimination of the Taira left Yoritomo, as head of the Minamoto clan, the virtual ruler of the nation and marked the beginning of the first period of feudal rule in Japan known as

1185-1333. THE KAMAKURA PERIOD.

The outstanding feature of the era was the clear division between the now powerless civil and religious government of the imperial court at Kyōto and the military government (*Bakufu*) of the Minamoto established at Kamakura, near the clan estates in eastern Japan and away from the enervating influence of the court nobility. The transition from civil to feudal military rule had begun with the Taira and was not completed until centuries later, but it was in the Kamakura Period that the most drastic changes occurred and the political and economic institutions of the next several centuries began to take shape.

Feudalism. The usurpation of the powers of the imperial court was largely unconscious and developed naturally out of the economic and political conditions of

the late Heian period. Primary factors in this evolution were (1) The wars of the 11th century had hastened the transfer of the prerogatives of ownership of the great manors of the nobles to the military men who resided on these manors as bailiffs or wardens and who often had feudal ties with the warrior clans. The actual ownership of the estates usually remained unchanged, but ownership was robbed of most of its meaning by a complicated series of feudal rights (*shiki*) which ranged from rights to cultivate the land up through an ascending scale of rights to the income from it. (2) Because of the breakdown of the old centralized government and the need for self-defense feudal military groups had grown up in the provinces with their own "house laws," governing the conduct and the relations of the members of a single group. Moreover, a feudal code of ethics had been developed which emphasized personal loyalty to a feudal chief rather than to a political ideal. (3) Minamoto prestige had for long induced landed warriors to commend themselves and their lands to the Minamoto for the sake of protection. The victory over the Taira greatly increased Minamoto feudal authority both through new additions of this sort and through the confiscation of vast Taira lands. The single Minamoto feudal union consequently had grown so large that it now controlled the nation, and its military government, and not the impotent Kyōto administration, was the real government of the land.

Foreign Relations For four and a half centuries only a few Japanese monks had gone abroad, and foreign trade had been in the hands of the Koreans and Chinese, but in the Kamakura period the Japanese once more began to take part in foreign commerce. At the same time they began to raid and plunder the coasts of both Korea and China, and in time they became a serious nuisance and occasionally even a national menace to both countries.

Art Kyōto, though remaining the scene of a colorful court life, was forced to share honors with Kamakura as a center of art and culture. Many Kyōto scholars moved to Kamakura to aid in the civil administration of the military government, and the warrior class brought a new creative energy to art and literature, which were approaching sterility in the late Heian period. Significant artistic trends were (1) a final great dowering of sculpture before its gradual extinction in following centuries, (2) the introduction from China of two new architectural styles known as the Chinese (*Karayo*) and the Indian (*Tenjukayo*) styles, which came to blend with

the traditional style (*Wayo*) and, (3) the perfection of the narrative picture scroll (*emaki mono*). Significant literary trends were, (1) the increasing use of Japanese in preference to Chinese, (2) the revival of native poetry in the *Shun-hokinshū*, an imperial anthology of 1205; and, (3) the popularity of historical military tales written in rhythmical prose.

Religion. The Kamakura period was one of great religious and intellectual ferment. It witnessed the birth and development of new sects growing out of the popular movements of the late Heian period. It saw the introduction of the Zen Sect from China and the growth of a military cult glorifying the sword, Spartan endurance and loyalty. From these two elements was born the combination of the ascetic and mystical penchants of the Zen monk with the qualities of the Kamakura warrior—a combination which remains one of the chief characteristics of the Japanese people.

1185-1199 Yoritomo, as the feudal military dictator, organized the new military government with the aid of Kyōto scholars like Ōe Hiroto (1148-1225). Already in 1180 he had created a *Saburadokoro* to perform police duties and to control affairs of the warrior class. In 1184 he had established an administrative board, renamed the *Mandokoro* in 1191. In 1184 the *Monchūjo* had also been established as a final court of appeal. Impartial administration of justice characterized the rule of the Kamakura military government and was one of the chief reasons for its long duration.

In 1185 Yoritomo appointed constables (*shugo*) in some of the provinces and placed stewards (*jusho*) in many of the large manors. A few such appointments had been made in preceding years, but now this system was expanded in order to strengthen his influence in regions over which he had hitherto had no direct control. The constables were special military governors in charge of the direct vassals of the Minamoto. The stewards, who represented Yoritomo on estates not otherwise under his control, levied taxes on the estates for military purposes. Thus the fiscal immunity of the manors was violated, and Kamakura retainers were scattered in key positions all over the country. The constables and stewards gradually grew in importance in the economic and political life of the provinces and in time developed into the feudal lords of later centuries.

1189. Yoshitsune was killed at the orders of Yoritomo who apparently was jealous of the fame the latter had won as the

brilliant general responsible for the greatest victories over the Taira. Yoritomo similarly disposed of other prominent members of the family, including his cousin Yoshinaka (1184), who as a warrior ranked next only to Yoshitsune, his uncle Yukiie (1186), who was one of the prime movers in the Minamoto uprising, and his brother Noriyori (1193), who also was one of the clan's great generals. His cruel treatment of his own relatives contributed to the early extinction of the family.

1189. Yoritomo crushed the powerful Fujiwara family of northern Japan on the grounds that they had killed Yoshitsune, albeit at his own command. The northern Fujiwara in the course of the previous century had become a great military power and had made their capital, Hirazumi, a brilliant center of culture. Their elimination removed a serious menace to Minamoto supremacy.

1191. Eisai (1141-1215) propagated the Rinzai branch of the Zen (Skt. *Dhyanā*) Sect after his return from a second study trip to China. The Zen Sect enjoyed the official patronage of Kamakura and the special favor of the warrior class in general.

1192. Yoritomo was appointed *Sendaishōgun* ("barbarian-subduing great general"), or *shōgun* for short. He was not the first to bear this title, but he was the first of the long line of military dictators called *shōgun*.

1199-1219 Transition period from Minamoto to Hōjō rule. Yoritomo was succeeded as head of the Minamoto by his eldest son, Yoriie (1182-1204), who was not appointed *shōgun* until 1202, but his mother, Masako (1157-1225), actually ruled with the aid of a council headed by her father, Hōjō Tokimasa (1138-1215). The latter, though a member of the Taira clan, from the start had cast his lot with Yoritomo and had exercised great influence in the Kamakura councils before Yoritomo's death. The Hōjō, though loyal to the military government, unsparingly did away with Yoritomo's descendants and crushed their rivals among the other Minamoto vassals.

1203. Yoriie was exiled and his younger brother, Sanetomo (1192-1199) was made *shōgun* by Tokimasa. The following year Yoriie was murdered.

1206. Tokimasa was eliminated from the government by Masako and his son, Yoshitoki (1163-1224), who then became regent (*shikken*) of the *shōgun*, a post held by successive Hōjō leaders, who were the real rulers.

1219 The Minamoto line came to an end when Sanetomo was assassinated, probably with Hōjō connivance, by his nephew, who in turn was executed.

1219-1333 THE PERIOD OF HŌJŌ RULE as regents for weakling *shōgun* of Fujiwara and imperial stock was characterized by administrative efficiency and by justice.

1221. An uprising under the leadership of the retired emperor, Toba II (1183-1198), was the gravest menace the Hōjō had to face, but was quickly crushed. Two prominent Hōjō leaders were left in Kyōtō as joint civil and military governors of the capital region (*Rokuhara Tandai*). The estates confiscated from the defeated partisans of Toba II gave Kamakura much needed land with which to reward its followers, and the abortive uprising gave the Hōjō a chance to extend the system of constables, steward, and military taxes to regions hitherto unaffected by it.

1224. Shinran Shōnin (1173-1262), a disciple of Genkō, founded the True Pure Land (*Jōdo Shin*) Sect as an offshoot from the Pure Land Sect of his master. The True Pure Land Sect introduced innovations such as marriage for the clergy. It was destined to become the most popular of all Japanese Buddhist sects with Zen its only close rival.

1226-1252 Fujiwara nobles as figurehead *shōgun*.

1229. Dōgen (1100-1253) introduced the Sōtō branch of the Zen Sect after his return from study in China.

1232. The *Jōui-shikimoku*, a law code based primarily on custom rather than on earlier sinicized law codes, was adopted for all those directly under the feudal rule of Kamakura. It remained the basis of law codes until modern times.

1252-1333. Imperial princes as figurehead *shōgun*.

1253. Nichiren (1222-1282) founded the Lotus (*Hokke*) Sect, popularly known as the *Nichiren Sect*. In it the Lotus Sutra was venerated much as the Amidist Sects venerated Amida. A fiery religious and political reformer, Nichiren was an ardent nationalist, and his writings illustrate the gradual emergence of a definite national consciousness at this time. Imbued with the turbulent nature of its founder, the sect had a stormy career.

1274. FIRST MONGOL INVASION. The Mongols, already masters of Korea and most of China, repeatedly sent embassies (1268-1273), enjoining the Japa-

nese to submit, but the Kamakura government under the bold leadership of the regent, Hōjō Tokimune (1251-1284), refused. Finally in 1274 the Mongols dispatched an expedition aboard a Korean fleet. The islands of Tsushima and Iki were reduced, a landing was made in Hakata (Hakozaki) Bay in northern Kyūshū, and an inconclusive encounter, in which superior weapons and military organization gave the Mongols the advantage, was fought with the local warriors. But the same night, because of their insecure position and the threat of a storm, the invaders set sail for Korea.

1281. SECOND MONGOL INVASION.

Mongol envoys sent to Japan in 1275 and again in 1280 were summarily executed, and the military government hastily prepared defense works in western Japan. In 1281 the Mongols embarked a huge force on two large fleets, one Korean and one Chinese, and again, after capturing Tsushima and Iki, landed in northern Kyūshū. Although the invaders numbered some 150,000 the Japanese checked their advance on land with walls they had prepared for this emergency and worsted them on the sea because of the greater mobility of their smaller craft in close quarters. After almost two months of fighting a terrific storm destroyed a large portion of the invading armada, and the remainder departed with serious losses. The Mongols continued plans for another invasion of Japan until the death of their emperor, Kublai (1294), and the Japanese continued their defense preparations still longer.

The Mongol invasions no doubt spurred on Japan's nascent national consciousness, but it also contributed greatly to the final collapse of the Kamakura government. Military preparations against the Mongols had seriously taxed the nation's resources, and at the end of the two invasions the military government, lacking land confiscated from the enemy, was without the usual means of rewarding its vassals for their valiant efforts. This state of affairs helped undermine the loyalty of the warrior retainers of Kamakura. At the same time the monasteries were becoming increasingly unruly, the court nobility was beginning again to intrigue with disaffected warriors against the Hōjō, and the latter themselves had lost the virtues of frugality and justice which had once characterized the family.

The Hōjō during the final decades of their rule began to resort to Acts of Grace (*Tokuwa*) cancelling certain indebtedness in an effort to save the lands of their vassals

from mortgages, but such obviously unfair measures antagonized certain powerful interests and failed adequately to protect the Kamakura vassals.

1331-1333. THE IMPERIAL RESTORA-

TION OF Daigo II and the fall of the Hōjō. The energetic and able emperor, Daigo II (1318-1339) after bringing to an end in 1322 the domination of the court by retired emperors, organized an abortive plot to overthrow the Hōjō as early as 1324. In 1331 open warfare broke out between Daigo II, supported by his able sons, some of the large monasteries in the capital region, and various local nobles and warriors like Kitabatake Chikafusa (1292-1354) and Kusunoki Masashige (1294-1336), the two outstanding patriot heroes of mediaeval Japan. The following year the emperor was captured and exiled to Ōki, but in 1333 he escaped. Most of western Japan declared for the imperial cause. Ashikaga Takauji (1305-1358), one of the two chief generals dispatched by the Hōjō from eastern Japan, deserted to Daigo II's standards, and the sudden capture of Kamakura by another prominent Hōjō vassal, Nitta Yoshisada (1301-1338), brought the military government of Kamakura to an end.

1333-1336. Daigo II in a short period of personal rule, failing to face economic and political realities, attempted to revive the civil imperial rule of the 8th century. However, he did make his able son, Morinaga (1308-1335), *shōgun* and appointed his leading generals military governors of large sections of the land. Because of his dissatisfaction with his share of the spoils in northeastern Japan,

1335. Takauji revolted against the throne. Defeating the Nitta, Kitabatake, and other loyal families,

1336 Takauji drove Daigo II out of Kyōto and set up a new emperor from a branch of the imperial family which had been jealously contending the throne with Daigo II's branch for several decades. He thereby became the virtual dictator of the central government, and, although he was not appointed *shōgun* until 1338, with his capture of Kyōto commenced

1336-1568. THE ASHIKAGA (or Muro-machi) PERIOD. The Ashikaga *shōgun* continued the outward forms of the military rule of the Minamoto and Hōjō, but during most of the first and last centuries of the period open warfare disrupted the nation, and at best the Ashikaga exercised only a shadowy control over the great feudatories who made their appearance at this time. The age was characterized by

quicker shifting allegiances and by political instability which at times amounted to anarchy. There was a general redistribution of feudal and economic rights, and the Kyoto nobility, which now lost most of its few remaining lands and provincial sources of income, was reduced to penury. The complicated feudal relations of the Kamakura period broke down into simpler, more compact divisions with practically independent lords, often the former provincial constables, ruling large territories, which were in turn subdivided into smaller units administered by their direct vassals. The collapse of clan unity and an organized feudal system necessitated stronger solidarity within the smaller family and feudal units. The division of patrimonies among heirs was abandoned, and women were reduced to the subordinate status they are still allotted. Lords exercised a closer paternalistic supervision over their vassals and the latter in turn served their lords with greater personal loyalty.

The overseas trade and pirate enterprises of the Japanese increased in the Ashikaga Period; the central government once more established official relations with China, and another important period of borrowing from abroad commenced. Foreign trade stimulated the growth of towns and provincial ports, such as Sakai (part of the modern Ōsaka), Hyōgo (the modern Kōbe), and Hakata (part of the modern Fukuoka). Despite political disruption and incessant warfare, a phenomenal economic development took place. Nascent industries grew and expanded, and trade guilds (*ka*), usually operating under the patronage of some religious institution, appeared and flourished. However, the unrestricted multiplication of various levies and of customs barriers proved a serious curb to the development of trade.

Kyōto was once more the undisputed political and cultural capital, and there the warrior class and the court nobility tended to fuse. Constant warfare made the period in some respects the intellectual dark ages of Japan, but political disunity helped to diffuse learning throughout the land. Zen monks dominated the intellectual and artistic life of the nation and through their intimate contacts with China, where many had lived and studied, expanded Japan's intellectual and artistic horizons. Although this was a great age of Zen, the other sects, particularly the Amida sect, flourished and sometimes developed powerful military organizations. It was still a thoroughly Buddhist age, but intellectual life began to free itself from the bonds of Buddhism. Sung Confucian philosophy was introduced from China, and stirrings of new life ap-

peared in Shinto, where for the first time systematic syncretic philosophies were developed.

Despite the violent internecine strife of the early and late Ashikaga period, in the middle decades literature and art, ruled by Zen standards of restraint and refinement, flourished. The *Literature of the Five Monasteries*, as the Zen school at Kyōto was called, revived poetic composition in Chinese, and a great lyric drama called *No* appeared. The Sung style of painting, often in monochrome and usually of landscape, reached its height in Japan with such great masters as Shūbun (c. 1415) and Sesshū (1420-1500), and the two greatest Japanese schools of painting, the Tosa and Kano, flourished. The independent architectural styles of the Kamakura period were blended to form a composite style. Minor arts like landscape gardening and flower arrangement grew up, and the tea ceremony was popular among the upper classes. Under Zen rule, too, there developed a refined simplicity of taste and a harmony with nature which has had a lasting influence on Japanese art and psychology.

1336-1392 CIVIL WARS OF THE YOSHINO PERIOD

When Takauji drove Daigo II out of Kyōto and set up a rival emperor, Daigo II and his partisans, the Kitabatake, Kusunoki and others, withdrew to the mountainous Yoshino region south of Nara, where Daigo II and three imperial successors maintained for almost six decades a rival court, called the *Southern Court* because of its location. During this period, known as the *Yoshino period* or the *Period of the Northern and Southern Dynasties*, civil war convulsed Japan. In support of the legitimacy of the southern court.

1339 Kitabatake Chikafusa wrote the *Jinnōshōki*, a history of Japan imbued with extreme nationalistic and patriotic sentiments. It is an important landmark in the growth of a national consciousness and the imperial cult.

1392. The reunion of the two courts. Although at times the Yoshino warriors even captured Kyōto, the hopes of the southern court gradually waned. Eventually in 1392 peace was made and Kameyama II (1383-1392) of the southern line abdicated in favor of Komatsu II (1332-1412) of the northern line, with the understanding that the throne should henceforth alternate between members of the two branches of the imperial family, as it had done for several reigns preceding that of Daigo II. However the northern line never yielded the throne to its rivals.

despite future uprisings in their behalf. Official history regards the southern line as the legitimate rulers during the Yoshino period.

1395-1408. Rule of Yoshimitsu as retired *shōgun*. Yoshimitsu, the third Ashikaga *shōgun* (1369-1395), after crushing his principal opponents, uniting the two imperial courts and bringing the Ashikaga power to its apogee, passed on the title of *shōgun* to his son and retired as a monk to his Kitayama estate on the outskirts of Kyōto. The Golden Pavilion (*Kinkaku*) he erected there is the outstanding remaining architectural work of the day, and his cotene of artists was the center of the artistic movements of the most creative epoch of the Ashikaga Period. There Kan'ami (1333-1384) and his son Se'ami (1363-1444) perfected the highly refined Nō drama from earlier dramatic and Euripichean performances. The luxurious but artistically creative life of the Kitayama estate was continued for several decades after Yoshimitsu's death by his successors.

1449-1490. Rule of Yoshimasa as *shōgun* (1419-1474) and retired *shōgun*. This was the second great creative period of Ashikaga art. In his Higashiyama estate on the edge of Kyōto, Yoshimasa built the Silver Pavilion (*Ginkaku*), which as an architectural work ranks second only to the Golden Pavilion of Yoshimitsu, and here he and a brilliant group of artists and aesthetes, presided over by Nō-ami (1397-1476), enjoyed a life of luxury and artistic elegance.

At the same time the complete collapse of what little authority the Ashikaga exercised over the nation became apparent, and there was great social unrest, resulting in numerous popular uprisings. Under the pressure of popular demands, Yoshimasa, like other Ashikaga *shōgun*, repeatedly issued Acts of Grace (*Tokuai*), which, unlike those of the Kamakura period, were sweeping debt cancellations for the benefit of the whole debtor class.

1465. The monks of the Enryakuji destroyed the Honganji, the central

monastery of the True Pure Land Sect in Kyōto. Such affrays between the great monasteries were common at this time. Rennyū (1415-1499) the eighth hereditary head of the sect, fled to the region north of Kyōto, where his teachings met with great success and his numerous followers built up a military organization to defend their interests.

1467-1477. The Ōnin War, ostensibly a contest over the succession in the Ashikaga and other great military families, was a really a reshuffling of domains and power among the feudal lords, who divided into two camps under the leadership of two great war lords of western Japan, Yamana Mochitoyo (Sōen) (1404-1473) and his son-in-law, Hosokawa Katsumoto (1430 [1425?]-1473), long the chief minister (*kannryō*) of the military government (1453-1464, 1458-1473). Kyōto was soon laid waste, but both leaders died in 1473, and exhaustion eventually brought peace in 1477. However, local struggles went on unabated. In fact, the Ōnin War was merely the prelude to over a century of almost uninterrupted warfare. This period, which is aptly called the *Epoch of a Warring Country*, witnessed a continual shuffling of fiefs and power, the elimination of many of the old feudal families, and the emergence of a new group of territorial lords, now known as *daimyō*.

1488. The True Pure Land Sect believers north of Kyōto defeated and killed a local lord. This is considered the first of the *Ikkō-ikki*, or Uprisings of the Ikkō Sect, another name for the True Pure Land Sect. Such uprisings became increasingly common and acted as a medium for popular manifestations of discontent.

1493. Hosokawa Masamoto (1466-1507) drove the *shōgun*, Yoshitane (1490-1494, 1508-1511) out of Kyōto and set up a puppet *shōgun* (1494), acts which were repeated by his adopted son Takakuni (1484-1531), in 1531. Yoshimasa's successors suffered similar indignities as the prestige of the Ashikaga dwindled farther.

(Cont. p. 542)

F. PRE-COLUMBIAN AMERICA

The aborigines of America, varying among themselves in certain racial characteristics, migrated from Asia to North America in successive waves by way of the Bering Strait. These migrations began at a very early date, and apparently continued until relatively recent times. The migrants, when they arrived, were in a very primitive state. Becoming isolated from other peoples, they slowly expanded throughout both continents and developed autochthonous cultures which ranged from savagery to a relatively high degree of civilization. Many groups at a comparatively early date attained the agricultural stage, and the Inca of Peru achieved the use of bronze. The use of iron and the principle of the wheel were unknown. The dog universally, the turkey, the duck, and, in the Peruvian highlands, the llama, alpaca, and guanaco were the only existing domestic animals, the llama being the sole beast of burden.

At the time of the discovery the peoples of highest culture, most complex society, and greatest political importance were the Aztec, with their center in the Valley of Anáhuac, the Maya of Yucatan and portions of Mexico and Central America, the Chibcha of the Colombian plateau, and the Inca, whose empire centered in the highlands of Peru. Between the higher civilizations of Mexico, Yucatan, and Central America and between those of the Andean region there was extensive interchange of culture over a lengthy period, and it is possible that there was cultural interchange between the peoples of Central America and those of the Andean region. The civilizations of the Aztec and the Inca were built upon preceding cultures of a high order.

THE AZTECS were originally a minor tribe of the great Nahua group. This group evoked the high Toltec civilization which receiving through cultural transmission mathematical and astronomical knowledge and a calendar from a lowland people, possibly the Maya, reached its height in the 13th century and declined thereafter, being followed by the transitional Chichimec culture. Reaching the shores of Lake Tezcucoc in 1325, the Aztecs created an impregnable capital, Tenochtitlán, in the marshes of the lake and, through superior political and military capacity and alliance, extended their control over central and southern Mexico from the Gulf to the Pacific and established colonies in Central America. In 1519 Tenochtitlán was a city of some 60,000 house-

holders and the Aztec Empire included perhaps 5,000,000 inhabitants. The government was relatively centralized, with an elective monarch, provincial governors appointed by the central authority, a well-organized judicial system, and a large and efficient army. The Aztecs attained a high degree of development in engineering, architecture, art, mathematics, and astronomy. Principal buildings were of mortar and rubble faced with stucco. There existed a body of tradition, history, philosophy, and poetry which was orally transmitted. Picture writing which was rapidly approaching phonetic was evolved. Music was rudimentarily developed. Agriculture was far advanced and commerce and simple industry flourished. The working of gold and silver and the production of pottery and textiles were highly developed. The religion of the Aztecs was polytheistic, and although it included many lofty concepts the duty of war, Huitzilopochtli, was the principal god and his worship led to the development of one of the most extensive systems of human sacrifice which has ever existed. The priesthood consumed a powerful group, political as well as religious. Certain of the peoples subjected by the Aztecs were restive under their domination and were prepared to rebel at the first opportunity. In the mountains to the east of Lake Tezcucoc there existed the powerful republic of Tlaxcala, which, maintaining its independence, regarded the Aztec as hereditary enemies. These conditions created a situation favorable to the Spaniards during the conquest.

THE MAYA before the Christian Era established themselves in the peninsula of Yucatan, Tabasco, Chiapas, northern, central, and eastern Guatemala, and western Honduras. They developed a civilization which, reaching its peak well before 1000 A.D., was in certain cultural aspects the highest in the New World. The Maya culture in the earlier period extended with considerable uniformity throughout the greater part of their general area, but after about 1000 A.D., tended to center in the northern part of the peninsula of Yucatan. During the period of the conquest the Maya did not evolve into a single area being divided into city states governed by politico-religious rulers or ruling groups. Art, architecture, mathematics, engineering, and astronomy were far advanced, and the Maya had evolved the conception of zero, a vigesimal numerical system, and a

calendar more accurate than the Julian. Temples and other major buildings were constructed of stone and mortar and were faced with carved stone. A system of causeways existed. Codices were formed for religious and astronomical purposes, but writing did not exist. A body of traditions, history, and religious prophecies were orally preserved. Religion was polytheistic and relatively humane, and the priestly class, exercising political authority as well as religious, possessed, with the ruling groups, a monopoly of learning. Widespread commerce existed, and weaving and pottery making were well developed. Agriculture was on an exceedingly high level. Civil war occurred during the 13th century and certain Mexican groups conquered the Maya of northern Yucatan. Mexican cultural influences were consequently introduced, especially in art, and religion. In the same century a greater degree of political cohesion appears to have been established in the northern part of the peninsula, and this resulted in a period of peace which endured until the 15th century, when internecine strife led to the destruction of Mayapan in 1451 and the abandonment of the great cities Chichen Itzá and Uxmal. The Maya civilization was decadent culturally and politically when the Spaniards arrived, although certain of the independent provinces were relatively powerful militarily. The Maya or Yucatan numbered perhaps 400,000 to 500,000 on the eve of the Spanish conquest.

THE CHIBCHA. The political organization of the Chibcha, who numbered some 1,000,000, was comparatively cohesive. The Zipa at Bacatá and the Zaque at Tunja were the political rulers, and supreme religious authority was held by the high-priest known as the *Iraca*. The Chibcha possessed a well-developed calendar and numerical system and employed pictographs. Extensive commerce and simple industry existed, ceramics and textiles being highly developed. In gold working the Chibcha were in certain respects unequalled. The Chibcha employed wood and thatch in the construction of buildings.

THE INCA, with their capital at Cuzco, successors to the high coastal and upland cultures of Chiná, Nasca, Pachacamac, and Tiahuanaco, which flourished during the early centuries of the Christian Era, extended their control over the area from Ecuador to central Chile along the coast and inland to the eastern slopes of the Andes including the Bolivian plateau. Expansion was particularly rapid from the 14th century onward and one of the greatest of the conquerors, Huayna Capac, lived until the eve of the Spanish conquest. The empire, with a population of perhaps 6,000,000 to 8,000,000, was a thoroughly organized absolute, paternal, socialistic, and theocratic despotism. All power emanated from the Inca as the ruler and representative of the Sun Deity, whose worship constituted the religion of the Inca. There existed a close-knit and graduated system of provincial and local administration. Each individual had a fixed place in society, and the state benignly provided for the welfare of all. The army was large and well organized, and a system of post and military roads extended to all portions of the empire. In mathematics and astronomy the Inca were not as accomplished as the Maya and Aztec, but in engineering architecture, and the production of textiles and ceramics they were far advanced. The Inca did not evolve writing, but possessed a device to aid memory in the form of the *quipu*, through which governmental records were kept, tradition was preserved, and messages were sent. In gold working a high degree of skill was attained. Commerce, entailing extensive navigation along the coast, was well developed. A great body of oral tradition and poetry existed, and music was comparatively well developed. Principal buildings were of stone. Politically the Inca were the most advanced of the peoples of the New World. At his death Huayna Capac, contrary to practice, divided the empire between Huáscar, his son by a lawful wife, and Atahualpa, his son by a concubine. A civil war followed, in which Atahualpa, shortly before the arrival of the Spaniards, triumphed and imprisoned his half-brother.

G. THE GREAT DISCOVERIES

1. ASIA

The Crusades left Europe with a greatly expanded horizon, with much more extensive trade interests and connections and with an accentuated hostility toward Islam. The great conquests of the Mongols in the 13th century (Jenghiz Khan, 1206-1227, period of greatness under Kublai Khan, 1259-1294), in uniting most of Asia, the Near East, and eastern Europe under one sway opened direct communication between Europe and the Orient and raised the prospect of an alliance against the Moslems.

1160-1173. Rabbi Benjamin of Tudela (in Navarre) traveled through Persia, central Asia and to the very confines of China, but for religious reasons his records had little influence on Christian Europe. The same was true of the researchers of the great Arab geographer Yaqut, who lived in the late 12th and early 13th centuries and wrote a great geographical dictionary.

1245-1247. Travels of John of Pian de Carpine, an Umbrian sent to the court of the Great Khan to propose an alliance against Islam and if possible to convert the Mongols. Traveling by way of southern Russia and the Volga, Carpine crossed central Asia and reached the Mongol court at Karakorum. Though well received his mission proved abortive.

1253-1255. Mission of William of Rubruck, a Fleming sent by St. Louis of France to the court of the Great Khan. Rubruck followed much the same route as Carpine and left one of the finest travel accounts of the Middle Ages.

1255-1266. First journey of the Polo brothers, Nicolo and Maffeo, Venetian traders in the Black Sea, who traveled to central Asia, spent three years in Bokhara and proceeded thence to China. They returned to Acre in 1260, bearing letters to the pope from the Mongol ruler.

1271-1295. Second journey of the Polos, accompanied this time by Nicolo's seventeen-year-old son, Marco, greatest of all mediaeval travelers. They took the route of the Polos, through Ormuz-Kerman-Farab, and thence across the Gobi Desert to the court of the Great Khan. The Mongol ruler was so favorably impressed that he took them into his service.

During the next fifteen years Marco became acquainted with much of China, Cochinchina, Burma, and India. The Polos returned by sea by way of Sumatra, India and Persia. Marco's famous *Book of Various Experiences* was dictated, probably in 1297, while he was a prisoner in Genoa. It was almost immediately popular and colored the whole geographic outlook of the succeeding period. Marco died in 1324.

1290-1340. During this period lively trade relations sprang up between Europe and Asia. Specific records are few, but such as they are they indicate the existence of commercial colonies and missionary groups in Persia (Tabriz), in India (Gujarat and Malabar coast), and in China (Peking and other cities). The great trade routes from Central Asia through south-eastern Russia and the Black Sea, and from Trebizond through Persia were wide open. Embassies were constantly passing between western rulers and the Khans of Persia, whose emissaries on various occasions came as far as England (1287, 1289, 1290, 1307).

1289. The pope sent out Friar John of Monte Corvino to take charge of the newly established Archbishopric of Peking. John remained at his post until his death in 1328 and seems to have built a flourishing Christian community.

1324-1328. Friar Oderic of Pordenone traveled to China, leaving one of the best accounts of the country.

1328. The pope established a Bishopric of Quilon and sent out Jordanus of Severac to take charge.

1338-1346. John Mangnoli was sent out to Peking as legate of the pope.

1340. Francesco Pegolotti, a Florentine trader at the Genoese station at Kaffa (Black Sea, founded 1266), wrote his *Merchants' Handbook* (*Della Pratica della Mercatura*), most valuable business manual of the time, which gives an unrivalled account of the commercial communications with Asia.

1368. Overthrow of the Mongol dominion in China. Under the succeeding Ming dynasty foreigners were again excluded. The conquests of Timur the Great, shortly after, served to block the Near-Eastern trade channels once more.

2. AFRICA

During the Middle Ages much of Africa was familiar to the Arabs. Ibn Batuta, greatest of Arab travelers, between the years 1325 and 1349 journeyed from his home in Morocco across northern Africa, through Egypt, the Near East, Arabia, eastern Africa, and thence to India. Later he traveled northward to the Crimea and thence through central Asia to India. After spending eight years at Delhi, he went on to Ceylon and China. On his return to Morocco in 1349, he set out across the Sahara and visited Timbuktu and the Niger region. His remarkable journeys serve to record not only the Arab trade from Egypt down the east coast to Africa and to India and beyond, but also the regular caravan trade from southern Morocco across the desert to the Kingdom of Ghana (i.e. Guinea) in Nigeria.

1225. Under the tolerant rule of the Almohades and Marinides in Morocco, the Franciscans and Dominicans were allowed to establish their missionary centers in the country. By the end of the 13th century Christian and more particularly Jewish European merchants were engaged in the trans-Saharan trade, dealing chiefly in gold and ivory. In 1447 the Genoese Antonio Maffione penetrated far to the south.

1316. Having heard of a Christian king in East Africa (legend of Prester John, widespread in Europe after the spurious letter of 1165), the pope sent eight Dominicans to Ethiopia. Others seem to have been sent in the course of the century.

1402. An Ethiopian embassy reached Venice. There were others in 1408 and 1427. In 1432 Ethiopian emissaries arrived at Lisbon and in 1481 at Rome. The object of these embassies, and of those sent in return (especially by the pope in 1453) was to establish a Christian alliance against the Muslim Mamelukes in Egypt and later against the Ottoman Turks. Nothing came of this project, but the exchange of missions served to acquaint Europe with that part of Africa.

1270. Beginning of Portuguese exploration of the west coast of Africa. The Portuguese Malocello visited the Canary Islands (1340-1341). These were assigned by the pope to the crown of Castile (1344).

1291. The two Genoese, Doria and Vivaldo, set out to find a route to India by sea; they never returned and nothing is known of their explorations.

1394-1460 PRINCE HENRY THE NAVIGATOR, the greatest patron of cosmography and discovery. Through his mother a grandson of John of Gaunt. Prince Henry, as general of the *Order of Christ*, was able to turn the crusading enthusiasm as well as the funds of the order into the fields of science and discovery. From 1418 onward the prince sent out almost annually expeditions carefully prepared and ably conducted. There can be little doubt that the religious factor dominated the work of the prince, though the scientific and commercial factors were hardly less important. That Prince Henry hoped to open up direct communications with Guinea by sea is clear. That he hoped ultimately to find a sea-route to Ethiopia and thence to India has been questioned by some, but is reasonably certain.

1418-1419 Exploration of the Madeira Islands, some of which had been known before. The Azores, some of which appear on the *Medieval Portolano* of 1351, but probably as imaginary islands, were discovered by Diogo de Seville in 1427-1431.

1425. Expedition sent by Prince Henry to conquer the Canaries from Castile. Thereafter the prince tried hard to secure the islands by negotiation and so exclude Castile from any share in the West African trade. Further attacks were made upon them in 1450-1453, but by the *Treaty of Alcaçovas* (1480, Mar. 6) they were definitely assigned to Castile, while West Africa, Guinea, and the islands of the ocean were assigned to Portugal.

1433. After more than ten years of repeated efforts, the Portuguese (under Gil Eannes) succeeded in doubling Cape Bojador. The advance then became rapid. Gold and natives were brought back and slave-raiding (later forbidden by Prince Henry) began.

1444 Nuño Tristram reached the Senegal River.

1445. Diogo Dias rounded Cape Verde. By this time the most barren part of the coast was passed and a lively trade with West Africa (c. 25 caravels a year) developed.

- 1455-1457** Alvise da Cadamosto (Cà da Mosto), a Venetian in the service of Prince Henry, explored the Senegal and Gambia Rivers and discovered the Cape Verde Islands.
- 1469.** After the death of Prince Henry there was a slackening of activity and the King, Atonso V, for financial reasons leased the Guinea trade for five years to **Fernão Gomes**, with the stipulation that exploration be carried forward at least 100 leagues annually.
- 1470-1471.** Under Gomes' auspices, **João de Santarém** and **Pedro de Escobar** reached Mina on the Gold Coast, where the Portuguese established a factory (fort, 1482) and did a rich trade in gold.
- 1472.** **Fernando Po** discovered the island which bears his name. **Lopo Gonçalves** crossed the equator and **Ruy de Sequeira** reached latitude 2° south.
- 1481.** With the accession of **John II** (1481-1495) the crown once more took in hand the work of exploration, and with greater energy than ever.
- 1482-1484.** **Diogo Cão** reached the mouth of the Congo River and Cape St. Augustine. In 1485-1486 he advanced to Cape Cross and Cape Negro.
- 1487.** King John organized expeditions by land and by sea in the hope of reaching Ethiopia and India. **Pedro de Covilhã** and **Alfonso de Paiva** were sent out by way of Cairo and Aden. **Covilhã** reached India and on his return followed the east coast of Africa as far south as the mouth of the Zambezi.
- 1487, Aug-1488, Dec.** **VOYAGE OF BARTOLOMEU DIAS.** Having followed the African coast, Dias was driven by a great storm (Dec-Feb) south of the tip of Africa. He turned east and soon discovered hills running to the northeast, showing him that he had rounded the Cape of Good Hope. He followed the east coast of Africa as far as Mossel Bay and the Great Fish River and then was obliged by his crew to return.
- 1497, July 8-1499, Aug 29 or Sept 9.** **VOYAGE OF VASCO DA GAMA.** This would have been undertaken sooner excepting for internal troubles in Portugal and disputes with Castile arising from the discoveries of Columbus. Da Gama left with four ships to find the way to India, the feasibility of the route being perfectly clear after the discoveries of Covilhã and Dias. He rounded the Cape in Nov 1497, reached Quilmane (Jan 1498), Mocha (Mar.), and then Mombasa. Despite trouble with the jealous Arab traders he was finally able to get a pilot from Melindi. He reached Calicut on the Malabar coast (May 22). He started for home in Aug 1498, touched Melindi (Jan 1499) and rounded the Cape (Mar). The exact date of his arrival at Lisbon is disputed.
- 1500, Mar. 9-1501, June 23.** **VOYAGE OF CABRAL**, who set out with 13 ships to establish Portuguese trade in the east. After touching Brazil (p. 368) he went on to India, which he reached in Sept. The fleet loaded pepper and other spices and arrived safely in Lisbon. From this time on Portuguese trading fleets went regularly to India, and Lisbon soon became the chief entrepot in Europe for oriental products.
- 1501.** **Vasco da Gama** was sent out with 20 ships to punish the Arabs and to close the Red Sea, in order to cut the trade route through Egypt to Alexandria.
- 1505.** **Francisco de Almeida** sent out as first governor of India. He took Quiloa and Mombasa on the African coast and established forts at Calicut, Cananor, and Cochim on the Malabar coast.
- 1509, Feb. 2.** **Almeida** destroyed the fleet of the Moslems in the battle of Diu, thus definitely establishing Portuguese control in Indian waters.
- 1509-1515.** Governorship of **Afonso de Albuquerque**, who in 1507 had conquered Ormuz on the Persian Gulf. Albuquerque made Goa the capital of the Portuguese possessions (1510), and in 1511 took Malacca. He opened communication with Siam, the Moluccas, and China.
- 1513.** **Jorge Alvarez** first landed near Canton.
- 1517.** **Fernão Peres de Andrade** appeared with a squadron at Canton.
- 1542.** **Antonio da Mota** and two companions, driven by a storm, first reached Japan.
- 1557.** The Portuguese established themselves at Macão (near Canton) and initiated regular trade with China.
- The opening of the direct route to India at once began the revolution in the conditions of trade between Europe and Asia. The Mamelukes in Egypt had controlled the main routes, from the Persian Gulf to Syrian ports and from the Red Sea to Alexandria, and from these ports the Venetians shipped to western Europe. The Egyptian sultan kept the consignments small (210 tons of pepper per year) and the prices were

therefore high. By 1503 the price of pepper in Lisbon was only one-fifth what it was in Venice. When the Portuguese succeeded in blocking the Red Sea route, the Egyptian-Venetian trade was more or less ruined. The conquest of Syria and Egypt by the Turks (1516-1517), though frequently de-

scribed as a stimulus to the discovery of new routes, had almost nothing to do with the situation. On the contrary the Turkish sultans (notably Suleiman, 1520-1566) did what they could to reopen the Near-Eastern routes.

3. AMERICA

a. PRE-COLUMBIAN DISCOVERIES

790. Irish Monks, searching for religious retreats and for new fields of missionary enterprise, reached Iceland, after discovering the Faroe Islands in the 7th century.

874. The Norsemen (Normans, Vikings) arrived in Iceland and settled.

981. The Norsemen, under Erik the Red, discovered Greenland and settled on the southwest coast (985-986).

1000. LEIF ERICSSON, returning from Norway to Greenland, was driven onto the American coast, which he called *Wineland* (Vinland), from the grapes he found there. Wineland was probably Nova Scotia.

1003-1006. THORFINN KARLSEFNI set out from Greenland with three ships to settle Wineland. He and his party spent three winters on the American continent. There is no general agreement regarding the localities visited by him, which have been placed by different authorities as far apart as Labrador and Florida. One recent writer puts the *Hellicand* (Flat-stone Land) of the Greenlandic-Icelandic sagas in northeastern Labrador, *Markland* (Wood Land) in southern Labrador, *Pordustrand* (Wonder Strand) on the north side of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, *Straumfjord* (Stream Fjord), where the first and third winters were spent, on Chaleur Bay (New Brunswick), and *Hop* (Lagoon) on the New England coast, either north or south of Cape Cod. Another recent writer is convinced that Karlsefni visited only the Labrador coast and both sides of the northern peninsula of Newfoundland, *Straumfjord* being, perhaps, in the vicinity of Hare Bay. Wineland was first mentioned in the *Hamburg Church History* of Adam of Bremen (1074 ff), but most of our knowledge derives from the Norse sagas written down in the 14th century. Supposed Norse remains on the American continent (*Dighton Rock*, *Old Stone Mill* at Newport) have all been rejected by

scholars as spurious, with the exception of the Kensington Stone, found near Kensington, Minnesota, in 1898, under the roots of a tree 70 years old. The stone contains a long runic inscription recording the presence there of a group of Norsemen in 1362. The stone and the inscription are clearly not forgeries, and a majority of geographers as well as many historians are disposed to accept the authenticity of the record. The philologists are less favorable, because of irregularities in the language that are hard to explain. Within recent years a Norse grave, with sword, shield, and two axes, is reported to have been found in Ontario.

How long the Norsemen continued to visit America is obviously an open question. The last definite mention, apart from the Kensington Stone evidence, is for 1189 A.D., but there is some reason to believe that they came at least as far as southern Labrador for ship's timber as late as 1347. After that date the Greenland colonies declined, though the West Colony (in southeast Greenland) continued to exist until at least the mid-15th century and ships appear to have gone there periodically, probably trading in walrus hides and tusks.

1470-1474. Between these years two Germans in the Danish service, Didrick Pining and Hans Pothorst, undertook a voyage to Iceland and the west, supposedly at the request of the King of Portugal. Pining was a great seaman and the terror of the English; from 1478 to 1490 he was governor of Iceland. There is no reason why he should not have been able to reach America, but the evidence does not show that he and Pothorst went beyond Greenland. On a map of 1537 it is stated that a famous pilot, Johannes Scolvus (claimed by some to have been a Pole—Jan Szkolny), reached Labrador at this time. It has been held by some scholars that he must have accompanied Pining and Pothorst, but, since Labrador at this time was a name generally used for Greenland, it seems unlikely that Scolvus went beyond the old Norse settlements. From the connection with the expedition

has been suggested by some that João Vaz Corte Real went along. There is no satisfactory evidence of this, but in 1474 Corte Real was rewarded with the captaincy of one of the Azores Islands for having made a voyage to the "Land of the Codfish" (Newfoundland), so that some scholars are well-disposed toward the theory that he may have reached America. But the markings on early maps make it seem likely that he too failed to get beyond Greenland. It is not unlikely though there is no real evidence, that Breton, Gascon, or Basque fishermen regularly visited the Grand Banks in this period. In any event there is no proof of realization of any pre-Columbian discovery, or of any influence on later attempts.

A great many theories have been advanced in recent years, notably by the Portuguese, but also by others to show that the Portuguese knew of the existence of America before Columbus sailed. Most of the theories rest upon conjecture and clever deductions. All we can say is that, after the translation of Ptolemy's *Geography* into Latin (1410), the idea of the sphericity of the earth, never entirely lost during the Middle Ages, of Roger Bacon's *Opus Majus* of the late 13th century spread rapidly in scientific circles and revived the idea of reaching Asia by sailing westward. Prince Henry the Navigator, for all his interest in the African route, sent expeditions to the west. In 1417-1431 Diogo de Seville discovered seven of the Azores, which may have been known to the Italians as early as 1351. Flores and Colvo were discovered in 1451-1452. The map of Andrea Bianco (1448) shows land of the proper conformation where Brazil lies. It is clear that after 1450 many Portuguese expeditions set out in search of legendary islands (St. Brendan's, Brazil, Antilla, Island of the Seven Cities, etc.) and, according to some scholars, the Lisbon government enforced a policy of rigorous secrecy with regard to new findings. Nevertheless, no present evidence of Portuguese knowledge of America before 1492 can be regarded as conclusive.

B. THE VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS

1451, bet Aug 26 and Oct 31. **CRISTÓBAL COLOMBO** (Span. Cristóbal Colón) born near Genoa, the son of Domenico Colombo, a weaver. Almost nothing definite is known of his youth (general unreliability of the biography by his son Fernando). He was probably himself a weaver and probably went to sea

only in 1472, when he made a trip to Sicily. He seems to have come to Portugal in 1470 and to have made a voyage to England in 1477 (the story of his visit to Iceland is rejected by almost all authorities). In 1478 he appears to have made a voyage to the Madeiras and in 1482 possibly to the Guinea coast. In 1480 he married the daughter of Bartholomew Perestrelo, hereditary captain of Porto Santo, near Madeira. By this time Columbus must have learned much about Portuguese discoveries and certainly about the ideas current in Lisbon. His appeal to the great Florentine geographer, Paolo Toscanelli, and the latter's reply (1474) urging a voyage to the west, have been called in question by some writers and may be spurious. In any event the idea of seeking India or China in the west was not novel.

1483 or 1484. Columbus appealed to King John II of Portugal to finance a voyage to the west, but whether to seek new islands or a route to Asia is not clear. At this very time the king was authorizing self-financed expeditions to the west of the Azores (1486, Fernan D'Almo) and he might have licensed Columbus had the latter been willing to finance himself. Others maintain that the Portuguese already knew that Asia could not be reached in this way. Apparently Columbus, whose geographical knowledge appears to have been very incomplete, was regarded as a vain boaster. His project was rejected.

1486. Columbus, through the mediation of some Franciscan monks, was able to submit his project to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. His religious fervor and personal magnetism impressed the queen, but the project was again rejected by experts. In the following years Columbus met the three Pinzón brothers, wealthy traders and expert navigators, from whom he doubtless learned much.

1492. After being recalled to court, Columbus finally induced the queen to finance his expedition. It is not yet clear whether he set out to discover new islands and territories, or whether his object was to find a route to the Indies. He was made admiral and governor of the territories to be discovered, but also earned letters to the Great Khan, which makes it probable that his purpose was twofold.

1492, Aug. 3-1493, Mar. 15. **THE FIRST VOYAGE.** Columbus left Palos with three ships, of which Martin Pinzón commanded one, and the famous pilot Juan de la Cosa another. He left the Canaries (Sept. 6) and reached land in the Bahamas (probably Watling's Island) (Oct. 2).

naming it *San Salvador*. He then discovered Cuba, which he thought was the territory of the Great Khan, and Santo Domingo (Hispanola). A post, Navidad, was established on Santo Domingo, after which Columbus returned (1493, Jan. 4), touching at the Azores (Feb. 13) landing at Lisbon (Mar. 4) and finally reaching Palos (Mar. 15). He announced that he had discovered the Indies, news of which spread over Europe with great rapidity and caused much excitement.

1493, May 4. The Line of Demarcation.

At the instance of the Spanish rulers who feared commercial claims by Portugal, Pope Alexander VI granted to the Catholic kings exclusive right to and possession of all lands to the south and west toward India, not held by a Christian prince on Christmas Day, 1492, beyond a line drawn one hundred leagues west of the Azores and Cape Verde Islands.

1493, Sept. 25-1496, June 11. SECOND VOYAGE OF COLUMBUS

He left with 17 caravels and 1500 men to establish Spanish power. On this voyage he discovered Dominica, Puerto Rico, and other of the Antilles and Jamaica, explored the southern coast of Cuba and circumnavigated Hispanola, where he founded the town of Isabella. He left his brother Bartholomew in charge, who in 1496 transferred the settlement to the southern coast (Santo Domingo).

1494, June 7. TREATY OF TORDESILLAS, between Portugal and Spain.

The line of demarcation was moved 270 leagues further west, Portugal to have exclusive rights to all lands to the east of it, and Spain of all lands to the west. The making of this treaty is not entirely clear, and it has often been used as an argument to prove that Portugal already knew of Brazil which, by the treaty, was brought into the Portuguese sphere.

1498, May 30-1500, Nov. 25. THIRD VOYAGE OF COLUMBUS

Discovery of Trinidad Island (1498, July 31) and South America (Aug. 1) near the mouth of the Orinoco. He explored the coast westward as far as Margarita Island. He then went to Hispanola, where a revolt broke out against him. He requested the crown to send out a judge. The government sent out to the Indies Francisco de Bobadilla (1499) who sent Columbus and his brother to Spain as prisoners. Columbus was released and treated with distinction, but, despite the earlier rights granted him, was never restored to his former authority or monopolistic grants. With Bobadilla direct royal control was established.

1502, May 11-1504, Nov. 7. **FOURTH VOYAGE OF COLUMBUS.** He reached the coast of Honduras and passed south to Panama, returning after having suffered shipwreck at Jamaica.

1506, May 21. Columbus died in relative obscurity at Valladolid. It is reasonably clear that he believed to the end of his days that he had discovered outlying parts of Asia, despite the fact that ever since 1493 the conviction had spread among experts (e.g. Peter Martyr) that a New World had been discovered.

c. POST-COLUMBIAN DISCOVERIES

1497, May 2-Aug. 6. VOYAGE OF JOHN CABOT.

Cabot was a wealthy Italian merchant (born in Genoa, resident in Venice) who had traveled in the east (Black Sea, Alexandria, Mecca) and who settled in England about 1490. For several years he sent out expeditions from Bristol to seek the island of Brazil, in the hope of securing the valuable Brazil wood used in dyeing. Columbus' supposed discovery of Asia in the west spurred him on. The expedition reached land (June 24) evidently on Cape Breton Island, whence it then cruised along the southern coast of Newfoundland. Cabot was convinced that he had discovered the country of the Great Khan and intended to return, passing south along the coast to the region of Brazil wood and spices.

1498, May. John and Sebastian Cabot sailed with six ships on a second voyage. They went north, coasted along the east coast of Greenland, thence passed to Labrador and went south by Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the New England coast, as far as perhaps Delaware. Thence they returned to England. The date of their arrival is not known. Having found no spices, their efforts evidently no longer interested the king or country. John Cabot is not heard of after March, 1499.

1498. King John of Portugal sent out the famous captain, explorer, and scientist, Duarte Pacheco Pereira, to investigate the lands in the west. Duarte's account (written in 1505 but published only in 1892) indicates that he may have reached the South American coast. He speaks of a vast continent extending from 70° N.L. to 28° S.L.

1499, May-1500, June. Voyage of Alonso de Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci in the service of Spain. They landed in French Guiana, discovered the mouth of the Amazon and proceeded as far as Cape

St Roque, after which they returned north and west along the coast as far as the Magdalena River and reached home by way of Española. An earlier voyage (1497-1498) by Vespucci, of which he himself tells in the confused and probably spurious sources, has been generally rejected by scholars. Vespucci (1451-1512) was a Florentine resident in Seville, probably an agent of the Medici banking firm.

1499, Sept.-1500, Dec. Voyage of Vicente Yañez Pinzón. Pinzón made a landfall near Cape San Roque (1500, Jan.) and thence followed the coast north-westward. At about the same time the Spaniard, Diego de Lepe, explored the Brazilian coast from Cape San Roque to about 10° S.L.

1500, Apr. 21. The Portuguese commander, Pedralvares Cabral, sailing to India with 13 caravels, and accompanied by such distinguished captains as Dias and Duarte Pacheco, landed in Brazil, coming from the Cape Verde Islands. The party stayed only about ten days, but took official possession of the country which Cabral named *Tierra de Vera Cruz*. The idea of Cabral having been the first to discover Brazil, like the idea that his landing there was accidental, has now been given up by some scholars, but the evidence is quite inadequate and the question remains open.

1500. The Portuguese, Gaspar de Corte Real, son of João Vaz, voyaged to the east coast of Greenland and to Labrador. In 1501 he set out on a second expedition, exploring Labrador and thence turning south. He himself was lost on this expedition, but his brother Michael carried out yet another voyage in 1502 to the Newfoundland coast. He too was lost at sea.

1501, May-1502, Sept. **SECOND VOYAGE OF AMERIGO VESPUCCI**, this time in the service of Portugal. The voyage took him south along the Brazilian coast to about 32° S.L. if not farther. It was from the published account of this voyage and from Vespucci's conviction that what had been found was a *New World* that the geographer Martin Waldseemüller was led to propose that this New World be called *America* (1507). The name was at first applied only to South America and the use of it spread slowly until its general adoption toward the end of the 16th century.

Further explorations need not be listed in detail. De Bastidas traced the coast from Panama to Port Manzanilla (1500-1502), Vicente Pinzón followed the mainland from the Bay of Honduras to beyond the easternmost point of Brazil (1508), Ocampo circumnavigated Cuba (1508), which was conquered by Diego Velázquez (1511), Juan Ponce de Leon, the governor of Puerto Rico, discovered Florida (1512).

1513, Sept. 25. Vasco Núñez de Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Panama and discovered the Pacific Ocean.

1515-1516 Juan Diaz de Solís, chief pilot of Spain, searching for a strait to the Pacific, explored the coast of South America from near Rio de Janeiro to the Rio de la Plata, where he was slain.

1517. Francisco Hernández de Córdoba discovered Yucatan, finding traces of large cities and great wealth.

1518. Juan de Grijalva followed the coast north from Yucatan to the Panuco River.

1519. Álvarez Pineda completed exploration of the Gulf of Mexico by coasting from Florida to Vera Cruz and back. Francisco de Gordoillo advanced up the Atlantic coast to South Carolina (1521), and Pedro de Quexos as far as 40° N.L. (1525). At the same time (1524-1525) Esteban Gómez, sailing from Spain, followed the coast from Nova Scotia in the north to Florida in the south.

1519-1522. CIRCUMNAVIGATION OF THE GLOBE BY FERDINAND MAGELLAN (Fernão de Magalhães, 1480-1521). Magellan was sent out by the Spanish crown to find a strait to the Moluccas. He reached the Brazilian coast near Pernambuco, explored the estuary of the Rio de la Plata and, after wintering at Port St. Julian, passed through the strait which bears his name and entered the South Sea, to which the name *Mare Pacificum* was given. After following the coast to about 50° S.L. he turned northwest and after months of sailing reached the Ladrões and Philippines. In the latter place he was killed in a skirmish with the natives. One of his vessels, under Sebastian del Cano, continued westward and reached Spain, thus completing the circumnavigation of the globe.